

TEACHER RETENTION, TEACHER ATTRITION, AND TEACHER PERSONALITIES

by

Kathryn Nabors Metherell

Liberty University

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education

Liberty University

2019

TEACHER RETENTION, TEACHER ATTRITION, AND TEACHER PERSONALITIES

by Kathryn Nabors Metherell

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education

Liberty University, Lynchburg, VA

2019

APPROVED BY:

Scott B. Watson, PhD, Committee Chair

Kevin Struble, EdD, Committee Member

ABSTRACT

The teaching profession is currently suffering from the number of teachers who leave the classroom before retirement. Many corporations use personality testing to determine if an individual is suitable for a position and if they are likely to remain in that position for the duration of their career. A causal-comparative research design was used to determine if there was a difference in teachers who left the classroom before retirement, teachers who officially retired under normal circumstances, biological sex, and personality type. The Big Five Inventory-2 was used to determine the personality types of the participants. The participants were categorized into one of the following personality domains: Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism, or Openness to experience. There were three significant findings from the data collected. A chi-squared test of goodness of fit found those who left the classroom before retirement were less agreeable than those who retired as classroom teachers. It was also found that women who left the classroom before retirement were more conscientiousness than men who left. Men were found to be more often identified as openness personality types than women who left the classroom. The results indicate that personality type may be an indicator for teachers' retention and attrition.

Dedication

This manuscript is dedicated to my daughter, Ryleigh Isabella Nabors. I first started this program at Liberty University when she was only one month old and am now finishing when she is six years old. She has no idea how much she is the reason I finished this paper and degree, but I pray that one day she fully understands and is proud of her mommy. Ryleigh, thank you for being a little girl I so badly want to serve. Thank you for being so kind and supportive of me without even knowing what you are supporting. I love you Rybug. I also would like to dedicate this manuscript to my parents. They are my people. To my husband: You did not know what you were signing up for when we first met, and neither did I. I did not know the tears and time that would be put into this degree. I thought I was at the end when we first met but I was obviously only at the beginning of this dissertation journey. Thank you for pushing me to finish and reminding me of my hard work. Thank you for loving me always.

Table of Contents

ABSTRACT	3
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	8
Background	8
Problem Statement	12
Purpose Statement	12
Significance of the Study	14
Research Questions	14
Definitions	15
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW	17
Overview	17
Theoretical Framework	17
Related Literature	24
Summary	47
CHAPTER THREE: METHODS	48
Overview	48
Design	48
Research Questions	48
Hypotheses	49
Participation and Setting	49
Instrumentation	50
Procedures	51
Data Analysis	51

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS.....	53
Overview.....	53
Research Questions.....	53
Null Hypotheses	53
Descriptive Findings and Data Analysis	54
Summary of Results	60
CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS	61
Overview.....	61
Discussion	61
Implications	65
Limitations	67
Recommendations for Future Research	67
REFERENCES	70
APPENDIX	88

List of Abbreviations

Big Five Inventory 2 (BFI-2)

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Background

On average, close to 50% of teachers leave the profession within the first five years of teaching (Darling-Hammond & Sykes, 2003; Ingersoll, 2003; Ronfeldt, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2013). Teacher retention has been studied extensively due to the vast number of teachers that run from the profession after only a few years in the classroom. Studies have suggested that teacher attrition has a negative impact on a school's organization, teachers, and students, specifically in regards to mathematics and reading achievement in elementary students (Ronfeldt, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2013). Reading and Math are the areas of strongest impact because of the vast amount of time that elementary students spend daily on these two subjects. It has been suggested that teachers with years of experience are better able to identify the needs of individual students (Tella, 2017). In the United States, over two billion dollars is spent each year replacing teachers who have left the profession (Kersaint, 2005). Teacher retention is not only a problem in the United States, but across the globe as well (Mason & Matas, 2015). Mason and Matas (2015) conducted research to try and understand why Australian teachers prematurely leave the profession, while Lindqvist and Nordanger (2016) found that the United Kingdom also has high rates of teacher attrition.

Many researchers have attempted to identify the reasons teachers leave the profession and ways to encourage them to stay in the classroom. Teacher-to-teacher mentoring, servant leadership, retention bonuses, and teacher workload, as well as many other areas, have been studied to determine how to encourage teachers to be content in the classroom (Callahan, 2016; Dutta & Khatri, 2017; Springer, Swain, & Rodriguez, 2016; Torres, 2016). It is the desire of

parents, administration, students, and other teachers for K-12 teachers to stay in the profession; however, many teachers lack the desire to continue in the occupation until retirement.

Teacher retention has been highly researched since the 1970s. In 1970 it was reported that 25% of all people with teaching certificates either did not begin teaching or left the profession within the first few years (Charters, 1970). As time progressed, teacher attrition seemed to decrease. In 1988, the overall attrition rate for the teaching profession among public school teachers was 5.6% and depended heavily on the field of study (Tabs, 1994). Special education teachers were some of the most likely candidates for attrition. The attrition rate from 1987 to 1991 decreased by .5% but increased significantly shortly after (Tabs, 1994). Homemaking and/or child-rearing was the primary occupation status reported of former teachers who left the profession (Tabs, 1994). In 2002, after many years of good teacher retention, Ingersoll (2001) determined that 46% of new teachers had left the profession by the end of their first five years. This percentage has only increased as time has passed, with today's percentages being closer to 50% (Ronfeldt, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2013). With close to half of all teachers leaving the profession within the first five years, along with increasing student enrollment, schools are suffering from not being able to fill teaching positions, especially in lower-income areas (Simon & Johnson, 2015). This is not only a problem for filling vacancies but also in creating mentorship programs for new teachers due to a lack of veteran teachers, which has been proven an effective strategy for teacher retention (Ingersoll, 2001).

Teacher attrition is at the forefront of many educational leaders' minds today. Educational institutions have begun to develop alternative programs for teacher licensure. These programs are career-switcher programs that have been created by the state to provide an additional pathway into teaching for individuals who have a desire to maintain employment

while pursuing teaching licensure. Most candidates who have a desire to be a part of alternative certification programs are older and bring more life experience and greater maturity to the profession (Smith, Nystrand, Ruch, Gideonse, & Carlson, 1985). While these career-switcher programs can produce a greater number of teacher candidates, more teachers who are licensed through alternative certification programs leave the profession than teachers certified traditionally (Redding & Smith, 2016). Boyd, Dunlop, Lankford, Loeb, Mahler, O'Brien, and Wyckoff (2012) conducted research on New York teachers and found that after five years of teaching, teachers who were licensed nontraditionally were 53% more likely to leave the profession. Alternatively, certified teachers were found to feel less prepared, having little classroom practicum experience compared to their traditionally certified counterparts (Kee, 2012). Alternative certification programs must look beyond what will increase the number of individuals obtaining certifications to what criteria are necessary for acceptance to guarantee retention once a teaching license is obtained.

Personality is believed to play a role in the career an individual chooses (Bean & Holcombe, 1993). There is a long history of personality testing being used in the United States. During World War I, the United States' Army used personality tests during their recruitment process to determine which individuals were susceptible to psychological disorders (Boyle, Matthews, & Saklofske, 2008). The idea that an individual's personality has a major influence on how that individual copes with conflict and stressful situations could factor into recruitment and retention techniques for specific jobs, including teaching. Personality testing is used in 20% of United States companies (Piotrowski & Armstrong, 2006). However, it is not used in the education profession (Piotrowski & Armstrong, 2006).

Personality identification has been beneficial to many companies during the hiring process. Approximately 46% of employers use some form of a personality test either during the hiring process or in early employment (Black, 1994). There are many reasons for using personality testing to screen applicants. There is a high cost to employee turnover, including utilizing resources to train employees and the amount of time it takes to fill a vacant position (Calvasina & Calvasina, 2016). Companies that used personality tests for hiring primarily judged the applicants' honesty and sought to identify emotional disorders or predict whether the job applicant had a tendency towards violence or other harassing behaviors (Stabile, 2001). This type of screening has been known to cause legal issues for some companies. The areas of legal concern are the potential of personality testing violating the Americans with Disabilities Act, Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, and the Age Discrimination in Employment Act (Anderson, 2018). However, if the personality test is used appropriately per the law, it can be very beneficial for employees and employers.

Public service careers have been researched and found to have consistent personality traits that relate with retention. Oliver (2014) developed a list of the five most important traits for a law enforcement officer. These traits were found to be associated with higher performance of the individuals in the job, as well as higher retention. Oliver (2014) suggested that the five most important traits be incorporated in the evaluation of individuals being considered for a law enforcement job. Kennedy, Curtis, and Waters (2014) examined the literature to determine if there was a relationship between personality and a nurse's specialty. Some evidence suggested that personality traits relate to a nursing specialty choice, along with job approval and burnout (Kennedy, Curtis, & Waters, 2014). The teaching profession is very similar to the responsibilities and caretaking work of a nurse and law enforcement officer. With personality

being a predictor for both law enforcement officers and nurses, if a teaching program chooses candidates that are best suited for the career based on personality, it will likely improve workplace productivity, job fulfillment, and ultimately the retention of those candidates in the teaching profession.

Problem Statement

Many suggestions have been made to increase teacher retention. Some of the areas contributing to teacher attrition include lack of appropriate salary, administration differences, and whether or not a teacher fit within the environment of a specific school (Cochran-Smith, 2004; Lindqvist & Nordanger, 2016; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011). However, research has not been conducted on the benefits of identifying a teacher's personality in relation to the length of time the individual stays within the profession. Many of the changes suggested in previous research on teacher retention can be implemented by teaching programs and/or school systems; however, one's personality is not something that is easily changed.

Rushton, Morgan, and Richard (2007) found that teachers with an extraversion, intuition, feeling, and perception (ENFP) type personality were more likely to be selected to participate in highly effective leadership groups and considered to be the best teachers. The ENFP personality type has been defined as a true free spirit. Research has also indicated the need for certain personality characteristics that will become more necessary in the future as the role of the teacher changes (Clark & Guest, 1995). The problem is teachers, both males and females, are leaving the teaching profession before retirement.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this study was to determine if teachers who leave the teaching profession have similar personality traits to those who stay until retirement. In order to determine if

personality traits affect teacher retention, both males and females who left the teaching profession before retirement, and those who remained teachers until retirement, were asked to participate. Learning more about male teachers is especially important since only 24% of teachers are men and only one tenth of those men teach elementary school (Policy Research in Education, 2017). Hoff and Mitchell (2008) found that male teachers often leave the teaching profession in order to take on a leadership role. Struyven and Vanthournout (2014) confirmed this; their research indicated that males often leave the teaching profession in favor of careers with higher salaries. An association between teacher personalities and teacher retention has the potential to mend an area in education that is negatively affecting the public school system as a whole. The participants will be given a personality test, The Big Five Inventory-2, to determine if there is a statistically significant relationship in the personality types of both teachers who left the profession before retirement, those who remained until retirement, and sex (Soto & John, 2017).

The dependent variable in the present study was personality type. Personality type was assigned to each participant according to the Big Five Inventory-2. The independent variables in the study were those individuals who stayed in the classroom until retirement, those who left prior to retirement, and biological sex. Four groups of individuals were tested. The first group was comprised of individuals who left teaching prior to retirement. The second group consisted of individuals who stayed in the classroom until retirement. The group that left prior to retirement was divided into two groups, one comprised of males who left the teaching profession and the other comprised of females who left the teaching profession.

Significance of the Study

Personality characteristics have been used to determine and foresee an individual's reaction to many different situations in that individual's life. Personality has been used to forecast everything, from ones' happiness to how much time an adult would be likely to spend on the internet on a daily basis (Cheng & Furnham, 2003; Douglas, 2016). Personality traits have also been used in some aspects of education. High school seniors often take personality tests to determine their performance and the probability of retention in college (Tross, Harper, Osher, & Kneidinger, 2000). Personality traits have also been used with teachers in studies, most commonly to determine their effectiveness in the classroom (Klassen & Tze, 2014).

A substantial amount of research has been conducted on personality as an indicator for job retention in other professions; however, there is a deficit in research on teacher retention and attrition. Oliver (2014) suggested a list of the five most important personality traits to enhance the career of a law enforcement officer, which translated to retention in that law enforcement officer's career. If there are a list of personality traits that determine retention in law enforcement officers, specific personality traits might correlate to retention in the classroom as well. Determining if this study's participants who left the teaching profession before retirement all have similar personalities will help in determining if specific personality traits are important for job retention in the teaching profession.

Research Questions

RQ1: Is there a difference in the distribution of the personality types (e.g. openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism) of teachers who left the classroom before retirement and teachers who officially retired under normal circumstances as measured by the BFI-2?

RQ2: Is there a difference in the distribution of personality types (e.g. openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism) of both biological sexes of teachers who left the classroom before retirement?

Definitions

1. Teacher Retention: Teachers returning to their classrooms (Lochmiller, Sugimoto, & Muller, 2016)
2. Teacher Attrition: When teachers leave the education system from one year to the next (Lochmiller, Sugimoto, & Muller, 2016)
3. Personality: That which tells what a man will do when placed in a given situation (Rothe, 2017)
4. Personality Traits: Adjectives used to describe characteristics of an individual (Allport & Odbert, 1936)
5. Biological Sex: Refers to “a person’s biological status and is typically categorized as male, female, or intersex” (American Psychological Association, 2011, para 1)
6. Openness to Experience: “The overall depth and breadth of an individual’s intellectual, artistic, and experiential life” (Soto, Kronauer, & Liang, 2016)
7. Conscientiousness: “ An individual’s capacity to organize things, complete tasks, and work toward long-term goals” (Soto, Kronauer, & Liang, 2016)
8. Extraversion: “The extent to which an individual is talkative and outgoing in social situation[s]” (Soto, Kronauer, & Liang, 2016)
9. Agreeableness: s “The extent to which someone behaves prosocially toward others and maintains pleasant, harmonious interpersonal relations” (Soto, Kronauer, & Liang, 2016)

10. Neuroticism: “The extent to which someone is prone to experience negative emotions and moods” (Soto, Kronauer, & Liang, 2016)

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview

Teacher retention is an area of education that everyone should care about. About 50% of all teachers leave the teaching profession within the first five years on the job (Ronfeldt, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2013). While the data is not often specific to sex, research has shown that males often enter the teaching profession with a desire to enhance their salary. The rate of teachers leaving the profession before retirement is steadily rising; thus, learning more about those teachers who have left the profession is vital. Individual personality traits may be influential in determining the primary reason teachers leave the teaching profession. The Holland career theory suggests that individuals with specific personality traits will be most successful in an occupation that falls in the same category and could be insightful in determining if a teacher's personality is the cause of that teacher leaving the profession (Foutch, McHugh, Bertoch, & Reardon, 2014). This theory, as well as the self-concept-job fit theory and the five-factor model, will be used to determine the importance that personality traits play in teachers leaving the profession.

Theoretical Framework

An individual's personality is understood to be an important aspect of job satisfaction. There is a relationship between job satisfaction and teacher retention, which is a prominent issue in the public education system (Houchins, Shippen, & Cattret, 2004). While personality traits have become one of the main areas studied when trying to understand the connection between job satisfaction and retention in the corporate world, personality traits have not been studied to determine their significance in job retention in the field of education. Having a greater understanding of the reason teachers leave the profession before retirement is essential in creating an educational environment for students to be successful.

Self-Concept-Job Fit (SC-J)

Most individuals place a significant amount of importance on their careers. An individual's place of employment is where that individual spends most of his or her time on any given day. Everyone uses different reasons and strategies in order to determine what job they will seek. A 2006 poll indicated that roughly 76% of the people who were presently employed were either somewhat likely or very likely to begin searching for a new job (Frincke, 2006). The concept of person-job-fit relates specifically to the amount of compatibility that an individual has with a specific job. Another definition of person-job-fit is "the match between knowledge, skills, and abilities of a person and the demands of a job" (Sekiguchi, 2007).

The interactional theory was the original concept that was the basis for the person-job-fit theory. The interactional theory was developed by Lewin in 1951. Schneider's (1987) attraction-selection-attrition model evolved from the interaction theory. This theory suggests that people find organizations attractive and that if an individual does not fit into an organization, that individual is more likely to leave the organization. Scroggins and Benson (2007) were the first to introduce and define the idea of self-concept-job fit.

Being able to define self-concept is an important aspect of this model. According to Rathus and Nevid (1980), self-concept is an individual's discernment of oneself, incorporating personality traits and the assessment of those traits. "Self-concept includes self-esteem, self-identity, and conceptions of the ideal self" (Scroggins & Benson, 2007). Another aspect of this model is the power of meaningful work. According to Conger (1994), a sense of importance has gradually been placed on working in an environment that endorses a sense of higher purpose as well as an overall desire for personal fulfillment in work. Meaningful work has been defined by Steger, Dik, and Duffy (2012) as "work that is (a) personally meaningful, (b) aids personal

growth, and (c) contributes to the common good.” Meaningful work has been associated with career guarantee, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction (Duffy, Allan, Autin, & Douglass, 2014).

The act of an individual choosing a good-fit job allows for the conception of meaningful work as well as a greater possibility of employee retention. Mitchell, Holtom, and Lee (2001) expressed that retention is one of the most talked about topics within human resource departments today. “A self-concept-job occurs when the performance of job tasks produces perceptions and feelings within the individuals that are congruent with the individuals’ perceptions of who they are and/or the kind of person they desire to be” (Scroggins & Benson, 2007).

Holland’s RIASEC Career Theory

Developed from Lewin’s studies, Holland’s RIASEC career theory is one of the most prominent theories in the field of career development and vocational psychology (Foutch, McHugh, Bertoch, & Reardon, 2014). This theory was developed by Holland in 1959 (Brown, 2002). In 1973, Holland published a more detailed version of this theory, which has since been revised (Brown, 2002). Holland’s theory indicates that individuals and occupations can be categorized according to six different groupings (Toomey, Levinson, & Palmer, 2009). The theory has been used in hundreds of studies and is the most influential model of vocational decision making currently in existence (Brown, 2002).

Holland identified the following six grouping categories: realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising, and conventional. Holland’s theory states that every individual can be labeled by one of these six categories of personalities. The personality trait that an individual is categorized by triggers an individual to seek employment in areas where the categorized

personality will be able to be expressed. Holland's main theory suggests that people will be "satisfied and successful if they find job positions which match their personality" (Zaharie, Osoian, Beleiu, 2014, p. 187).

Holland (1973) determined that job satisfaction and retention depended on the similarity between an individual's personality and the atmosphere in which that individual worked. Holland (1997) found that the likelihood of individuals continuing in, or altering, their occupations can be anticipated by their level of congruence, which is the degree to which the personality matches the requirements of the job. Holland's theory suggests that individuals seek out jobs that are fit for their personality type. When an individual chooses a job that is a good fit, that person is more likely to find that job meaningful (Scroggins, 2008). According to Scroggins (2008), the sense of meaning attached to a job suggests that retention is more likely to occur. If an individual ends up in a job that is not complimentary to his or her personality type, he or she would be more likely to leave the job.

Five-Factor Model of Personality

The five-factor model did not begin with an assumed number of dimensions of personality investigated by researchers, but rather, it emerged from a number of factor analyses studies. The five-factor model of personality is a categorized group of personality traits regarding five basic dimensions expressed through 30 facets: Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism, and Openness to Experience (McCrae & John, 1992). Determining which factors an individual scores higher in and which factors one scores lower in can affirm careers in which that individual would find the most success. Specific personality traits have also been linked to students' grade point averages, the salary of individuals, success in marriage relationships, and many other areas of life. The theoretical assumption of the five-

factor model is that individuals can be very low, low, average, high, or very high in each of the five factors and 30 facets (Grice, 2006). The five-factor model has the capability to be simple or complex depending on whether one includes the facets associated with each basic dimension.

Extraversion is the most popular factor, as well as the easiest to detect (McCrae & Costa, 2008). This factor is related to societal success and popularity (McCrae & Costa, 2008).

Individuals who rate high in extraversion have been found to provide more input in group activities than those who score lower in extraversion (Littlepage, Schmidt, Whisler, & Frost, 1995). Extraversion includes the facets of warmth, gregariousness, assertiveness, activity level, excitement seeking, and positive emotions (Unruh & McCord, 2010). Frieder, Wang, and Oh (2018) argued that individuals with extraversion personality traits are able to find meaning and perform well in jobs such as outside sales positions, which creates a heightened performance in those types of jobs.

The second factor is Neuroticism, which is “defined by the six facet-level traits of anxiety, anger-hostility, depression, self-consciousness, impulsiveness, and vulnerability” (Hoyt, Rhodes, Hausenblas, & Giacobbi, 2009). High levels of neuroticism have been linked to poor decision making among adults as well as many psychological disorders (Denburg et al., 2009; Thompson, Kuppens, Mata, Jaeggi, Buschkuhl, Jonides, & Gotib, 2015; Barlow, Sauer-Zavala, Carl, Bullis, & Ellard, 2014). This personality trait is mostly addressed as a negative personality trait, which suggests that individuals who score high in this category are often described as individuals with negative moods (Rusting & Larsen, 1997).

The third factor is Agreeableness, which is identified by an individual exhibiting various traits such as adaptability, kindness, understanding, and patience (Barrick & Mount, 1991). These precursors to agreeableness allow the individual to be affluent around people, which

enables adaptability and encourages individuals to fit into most work environments (Sarwarm, Hameed, & Aftab, 2013). Witt, Burke, Barrick, and Mount (2002) found that employees who had high levels of agreeableness received higher marks on evaluations conducted in the workplace than those with low levels of agreeableness. Individuals high in agreeableness have a desire to maintain positive relationships (Jensen-Campbell & Graziano, 2001).

The fourth factor is conscientiousness, which is represented by traits of organization, reliability, determination, and self-discipline (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Bogg and Roberts (2004) found that individuals high in conscientiousness were more likely to stay away from risky health-related behaviors such as tobacco use, excessive alcohol use, violence, risky sexual behaviors, risky driving, suicide, and drug use.

The final factor is openness, specifically to experiences. This factor has also been called intellect (McCrae & Costa, 2008). Openness relates to being imaginative, curious, open-minded, and explorative (Erdheim, Wang, & Zickar, 2006). A high level of openness has been found to predict achievements in the arts and sciences (Kaufman, Quilty, Grazioplene, Hirsh, Gray, Peterson, & DeYoung, 2016). Individuals high in openness have been found to have many different interests, a strong sense of imagination, and intense perception (Jeswani & Dave, 2012). According to Bui (2017), the openness trait tends to be found and appreciated in entrepreneurs. Openness often allows individuals to be able to experience difficult situations while creating unique solutions to problems.

These factors have been found to indicate many characteristics of individuals. The five-factor model of personality has become the new paradigm for personality research (Marsh, Ludtke, Muthen, Asparouhov, Morin, & Trautwein, 2010). Bozgeyikli (2017) found that

extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness were linked to feelings of optimism, hope, resilience, and self-efficacy.

The five-factor model has been used to determine organizational commitment, an individual's behavior and performance, as well as an understanding of how people cope with stress (Erdheim, Wang, & Zickar, 2006; Zhao & Seibert, 2006; O'Brien & Delongis, 1996). Erdheim, Wang, and Zickar (2006) found that agreeableness was significantly related to commitment. Zhao and Seibert (2006) found that there was a significant difference between entrepreneurs and managers in four out of the five personality dimensions. Entrepreneurs scored higher in conscientiousness and openness while scoring lower in neuroticism and agreeableness. O'Brien and Delongis (1996) found that higher levels of empathy, which is linked to agreeableness, allowed for relational adjustments; thus, empathetic individuals were better able to cope with stress.

The five-factor model has also been used in research conducted on teachers. Bastian, McCord, Marks, and Carpenter (2017) found that conscientiousness was significantly associated with teachers who received higher evaluation marks and made suggestions that school districts should use personality trait measure as a way to improve teacher hiring. Specific personalities are better equipped for different aspects of education. Buttner, Pijil, Bijstra, and Van den Bosch (2016) concluded that students of emotional and behavioral difficulties were best taught by someone with the dimensions of agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness. If educational systems were to conduct personality tests prior to hiring they would be able to ensure each new hire would be placed in an environment that would best fit his or her personality. The five-factor model has been found to predict performance across all different types of vocations (Mount, Barrick, & Stewart, 1998).

Related Research

Today's College Student

Today's college student is different compared to that of past generations. Caudron (1997) reported that in the first round of interviews, many prospective college students ask questions about careers that would be meaningful as well as family and work-life balance when determining their majors. That is a difficult conversation for a stranger to have with a student because different personalities and past experiences find different jobs meaningful. There is not one job that all people find meaningful, nor is there one job in which all individuals can achieve a successful work/life balance. Each individual must determine what type of job they would find joy in, along with satisfaction and fulfillment.

Navarro (2015) stated that colleges need to do a better job of teaching students how to successfully navigate life and their careers post college. Through interviews, Navarro (2015) determined that college students found life events that occurred during the undergraduate years of education as significantly influential when choosing a major. Montmarquette, Cannings, and Mahseredjian (2002) found that students with a more financially stable background were more willing to risk entering into a more demanding concentration than those who were not.

Teacher candidates have been studied to determine why they chose to major in education in college. According to Vocke and Foran (2017), "the bottom line is teaching remains an extraordinarily noble profession with intrinsic rewards that few other professions enjoy" (p.82). Vocke and Foran suggested that teacher candidates see teaching as a job that has a substantial influence on society and will also bring themselves fulfillment. Meanwhile, Gore, Barron, Holmes, and Smith (2016) reported that while not the most common answer, when asked why someone chose teaching, it was at times a backup choice when another preferred career did not

work out. Often high school students are unaware of the vast amount of college programs available. They have a lot of experience with teachers; therefore, they are aware of the career and it is easier for students to choose a career they are aware of rather than the unknown. The choice of teaching is one that must be considered before completing a teaching program, as it is not a career with many job alternatives once one leaves (Gomba, 2016).

Teacher Retention

Teacher retention is a prevalent issue in the K-12 public education system. Many teachers are leaving the occupation for reasons other than retirement. Petzoldt and Rinke (2007) suggested that teachers under the age of 30 and over the age of 50 are the most likely groups to leave the teaching profession. There are plenty of teachers graduating from teaching licensure programs; however, retaining those teachers is the difficulty (Ingersoll, 2002). Studies have been conducted to determine factors teachers identify that contribute to leaving. Low salaries, a lack of respect, an increased workload, and declining autonomy have all been recognized as factors that cause teachers to leave the teaching profession (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011). While these were prominent reasons teachers left the profession, Djonko-Moore (2016) determined that the opinions teachers have of students' behavior and their perception of the community in which the school operates have the greatest impact on the likelihood of a teacher leaving a school in order to teach elsewhere. Rinke (2007) suggested that teachers who left the profession often noted they had advanced knowledge that they would take with them to their next career. This advanced knowledge was often obtained in order to provide teachers with an easier way to leave the teaching profession.

Many studies have been conducted from the perspective of the teachers; however, studies have also been conducted from an outsider's perspective. Hong (2012) found that teachers who

left the profession within the first five years had weaker self-efficacy beliefs when compared to teachers who had been in the profession for more than five years. Hong also found that those who left the profession reported less administrative or supervisory support. Along with a lack of administrative support, mentor or peer-support has been found to be an important factor in the retention of new teachers (Callahan, 2016; Thibodeaux, Labat, Lee, & Labat, 2015). Guha, Hyler, and Darling-Hammond (2017) recently suggested that teacher residencies, when used in a deliberate manner, can provide school districts with the capacity to deliver high-quality instructions from prepared instructors.

There are many reasons teacher retention is an issue that needs to continue to be addressed. Teacher retention is significant because teacher turnover creates uncertainty and costs excessive amounts of money, as well as negatively impacting teaching quality (Zhang & Zeller, 2016). According to Zhang & Zeller (2016), school systems in the United States spent 4.9 billion dollars in 2005 on teacher turnover. Along with the large financial burden on the school systems is the burden to students who are constantly being taught by inexperienced, new teachers. Many school districts have been forced to employ teachers who are not credentialed. Nougaret, Scruggs, and Mastropieri (2005) conducted a study of 20 first-year traditionally credentialed teachers and 20 emergency provisionally-licensed teachers. The results from the study suggested that traditionally licensed-teachers far outweighed teaching success than that of the provisionally licensed teachers.

According to Cross (2015), in the 2015-2016 school year, 48 states reported a deficiency of teachers in special education, 42 states reported a deficiency of math teachers, and 40 states reported a deficiency of science teachers. Carver-Thomas and Darling-Hammond (2017) reported more than 100,000 classrooms across the United States would be staffed by a teacher

who was not fully qualified to teach. While it has been suggested that the openings were based on recruitment, 90% of the openings not being filled were created by teachers who had left the profession, with 2/3 of those teachers having left for reasons other than retirement (Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2017).

First Five Years of Teaching

Teachers have been found to experience many trials within their first five years of teaching. In *The Naked Teacher*, Leaman (2006) addressed one of the common hardships beginning teachers encounter: isolation. “A teacher’s life is fairly isolated—alone for hours among a sea of other people’s children—but the rest of the adult population is just on the other side of your classroom door” (Leaman, 2006, p.6). The feeling of isolation can at times be overwhelming and cause teachers to desire to work in a setting with more adult interaction. Wong (2005) stated Americans usually view teachers as singletons who are encouraged to be creative in order to perform well in an individual classroom. This individualized approach can create a sense of loneliness and lack of support, which can intensify the difficulties of beginning teachers. Leaman (2006) challenged new teachers to seek out opportunities to engage with other adults throughout the day. Sleppin (2009) suggested that larger class sizes, the lack of resources in public education school districts and the reality that new teachers are often placed in positions that are not their strengths make being able to vent and connect with other adults throughout the day essential.

A primary aspect of teaching that is often a shock for new teachers is the political reality of education. Adoniou (2014) found that teacher preparatory programs did not prepare teachers to act politically or for the political realities of schooling. Teachers in their first five years of teaching said they struggled to find their own individual voices in the teaching profession outside

of the classroom (Adoniou, 2014). Standardized testing is an example of the political side of education. Teachers are often responsible for answering for those students who did not pass the tests specific to subject or grade level. New teachers have been reported using excuses for lack of positive test scores rather than constructively criticizing their practices. There are many states that have embraced legislation requiring teachers to be assessed based on the achievement advances of their students on standardized tests, regardless of conditions beyond the teachers' control (Vocke & Foran, 2017). This is an example of a political aspect of education that adds stress to all teachers, specifically those new to the profession.

Beginning teachers are often torn between the desire to leave the profession and the desire to establish themselves as effective teachers (Goncalves, 1992). Lapo and Bueno (2003) found that the abandonment of teaching does not happen suddenly, but is a process that takes time. Lapo and Bueno (2003) suggested that...

When the individual thinks about a profession, he or she thinks of 'something that is related to personal fulfillment, happiness, joy of living, etc., however this is meant to be understood.' When this involvement with this something ceases to result in personal fulfillment, the involvement certainly will be diminished, diminishing the efforts. This weakening or relaxing of the links is consequence of the combination of several factors, which generate difficulties and dissatisfactions that had been accumulating during the profession path. (p. 76)

When a teacher loses his or her initial drive, he or she may no longer have a desire to stay in the profession. Often teachers enter the profession excited and ready to make a difference, and after their first year of teaching no longer can envision their part as any difference. These teachers have experienced burnout. Burnout has been described as a psychological syndrome of

emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal achievement that can occur in those who work with others (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). This burnout reaction is often due to long-lasting daily stress. Another aspect of burnout is the idea that an individual's efforts are ineffective, the job feels to be never ending, and personal payoff is not received (Farber, 2000).

Beginning Teachers' Expectations

Beginning teachers come into the profession with many expectations. Johnson and The Project on The Next Generation of Teachers (2004) suggested that 1960s and 1970s teachers had many different expectations than teachers entering the profession today. Cochran-Smith (2004) suggested that teachers enter the teaching profession for “idealistic reasons—they love children, they love learning, they imagine a world that is a better and juster place, and they want all children to have the chance to live and work productively in a democratic society.”

New teachers today find relationships very important. They value relationships with their administration, other teachers, parents, and students as vital to their success. Claessens, Van Tartwijk, Pennings, Van Der Want, Verloop, Den Brok, and Wubbel (2016) suggested this desire is valid in that teacher-student connections are vital for the teachers' pleasure in school. Teachers new to the profession desire communication with and confirmation from their principals (Brock & Grady, 2007). They have a true desire to meet their principals' expectations and need encouragement to diminish self-doubt (Brock & Grady, 2007). They also have the expectation to earn a salary for what they consider important work and expect variety in what they do, with differentiated roles and opportunities to advance in the profession (Johnson & The Project on The Next Generation of Teachers, 2004).

The job of teacher preparatory programs is to instill in teacher candidates the reality of the teaching profession. Levine (2006) found that first-year teachers do not feel adequately prepared to teach, and the principals often agree. Teachers confessed to feeling prepared before they ever began their first year of teaching, but that perspective often changed after just one year within the classroom. These teachers' expectations of the career were met with the reality of the profession after just one year of teaching.

Perceived Problems of Beginner Teachers

When someone is put into a new position, there is a length of time that must pass before that individual becomes accustomed to the position. Veenman (1984) identified eight problems that new teachers expect to encounter, including "classroom discipline, motivating students, dealing with individual differences, assessing students' work, relationships with parents, organization of class work, insufficient and/or inadequate teaching materials and supplies, and dealing with problems of individual students" (p. 152). Beginning teachers often identify classroom management as the primary problem in the classroom. Dicke, Elling, Schmeck, and Leutner (2015) suggested that being unprepared to deal with classroom conflict is a primary cause of beginning teachers feeling overwhelmed, and that with applicable training a new teacher would be able to provide a more pleasurable classroom setting for the students as well as himself or herself.

The principals of new teachers have discussed their opinions of the strengths and weaknesses of beginning teachers. Most principals feel that beginner teachers are adequately prepared for their first years, while some noted the main problem is that those teachers do not have a well-developed concept about how to teach (Brock and Grady, 1998). Specific praise

from a principal would be beneficial in providing encouragement for a new teacher to be able to overcome adversity (Briere, Simonsen, Sugai, & Myers, 2015).

While there are many problems associated with the first year of teaching, having a solid mentor is critical in overcoming those problems (Hochberg, Desimone, Porter, Polikoff, Schwartz, and Johnson, 2015). Hochberg, Desimone, Porter, Polikoff, Schwartz, and Johnson (2015) suggested there are two different types of mentors—formal and informal. Hochberg et al. found that a combination of the two types of mentorship is necessary for a successful first year of teaching.

Teacher Morale

Teacher morale is an important aspect of contentment in the teaching profession. Bentley & Rempel (1972) defined teacher morale as the idea that teachers have personal needs and a teacher's perception of how well those needs are met impacts the individual's state of mind and performance. Teacher morale is essentially a combination of personal morale, school morale, and professional morale. Motivation, effort, and job satisfaction have all been associated with teacher morale.

MacKenzie (2007) suggested that a schools' climate is healthy and thriving when teacher morale is high. Teacher morale directly impacts student morale and student achievement. While many aspects of the education system affect teacher morale, principals have a significant impact on improving both self-esteem and teacher morale (Adams, 1992). Great leadership is the key to a great working environment and an employee's morale (Altman, 2010). Another aspect that can contribute to high morale is an excellent work environment where there is consistent fun and humor used each day (Rosborg, McGee, & Burgett, 2007). Wentworth (1990) suggested that input into decision-making that directly affects curriculum and instruction, recognition and

appreciation of teacher and student achievement, school climate that reflects a feeling of cooperation and pride, communication, opportunities for meaningful professional growth, shared goals, supportive leadership, quality time for planning and problem solving, well-maintained physical environment, positive human relations in the school and the community, encouragement and reward for innovation and teaching effectiveness, attention to professional needs, and attention to personal needs all plays a part in teacher morale.

A teacher with low morale can impact many aspects of the education system. Low morale was found in teachers who felt undervalued, unappreciated, demoralized, and frustrated (Cochran-Smith, 2001). With these feelings, employee motivation can be lost, which can result in poor teaching. Another area that has been found to be a significant factor in low teacher morale is the lack of compensation for all of the jobs that teachers do (Cochran-Smith, 2001). Black (2001) suggested that plummeting teacher morale normally accompanies plummeting student achievement.

Gender in Teaching

An organization is rarely considered gender neutral (Acker, 1990). Mills, Martino, and Lingard (2004) suggested that the teaching profession has become increasingly ‘feminized,’ which has created a lack of male role models for boys in education. Moss-Racusin and Johnson (2016) proposed that “education is one of the most highly female sex-typed occupations” (p. 382). There is a true need for more males in the teaching profession. Only 1% of teachers are black males; meanwhile, 75% are white females (Bryan & Ford, 2014).

Gender has a strong effect on turnover intent in the workplace (Kalokerinos, Kjelsaas, Bennetts, & Von Hippel, 2017). Women are more likely to have greater intentions to quit a job than a male. While there is a larger percentage of females than males in teaching positions, this could be because “men in female-dominated workplaces tend to rise quickly to the top” (Williams, 2013). Bitterman, Goldring, and Gray (2013) found this to be true in that the percentage of female teachers was 76%; however, the percentage of female principals was only 52%.

Many people believe that women are the most effective teachers because of a natural ability to be caregivers (Martino & Rezai-Rashti, 2010). Others believe the most effective teacher for a student is one of the same gender as the student himself or herself. Paredes (2014) found that female students performed significantly higher on math assessments when the teacher was a female; however, this was not the case for males. It is thought that disparity exists because math is viewed as a more predominantly masculine subject than others. Conversely, McGrath and Sinclair (2013) found that families were more concerned with the addition of more male teachers to elementary schools. Bullough (2015) conducted a study that combined the differing opinions of the participants and suggested that children need many different important people in their lives, both males and females, to help foster life experiences and create memories that help form identities for positive learning.

Reasons for Male Teacher Shortage

Vashaw (2017) conducted a study that explored the reasons why male elementary teachers voluntarily decided to leave the teaching profession. There were three themes that arose throughout the interview process, including the economy, the school system, and American society. Vashaw suggested that while salary was the most common reason for a male leaving the

profession, three other pay-related issues were contributing factors . The first was that men felt the salary for the job was not worth the amount of suffering that a teacher must endure. Those interviewed suggested that while the pain of the job would never be eliminated, a higher pay could make the frustration tolerable (Vashaw, 2017). The next theme found was “I’m worth more than this,” which suggested that those interviewed felt their expertise and time was worth more than the salary given to teachers (Vashaw, 2017). The final theme and the number one reason males left the profession was that teaching did not pay enough for those individuals to meet their economic needs. Cohen (2015) noted that some school districts have begun offering subsidized housing to teachers in K-12 public education to meet the economic needs of the public-school teacher.

Another common theme in understanding the shortage of male public education teachers is the growing area of concern regarding decreasing graduation rates of boys compared to girls, as well as lower performance scores in both reading and writing (Scelfo, 2007). Sanders (2002) reported that the average eleventh grade boy’s writing was equivalent to that of an eighth-grade girl. It has been suggested that when boys do not have male teachers, they are less likely to consider going into the teaching profession (Chmelynski, 2006).

Scelfo (2007) also suggested that most men who communicated affection for small children were often suspect of being child pedophiles. This stereotype associated with grown men who have a desire to work with children is one that has prevented many men from entering the teaching profession (Scelfo, 2007). Milloy (2003) suggested that the shortage of male teachers stems from the idea that men would feel a lack of masculinity if they identified themselves as a teacher.

Perceptions of the Teaching Profession

The teaching occupation has gone from one of the most prestigious jobs in the United States to one of little value in the eyes of the public. Garon (2013) reported that while teaching in the early half of the 20th century was an intelligent woman's elite career option, many top female college graduates now choose law, medicine, or business rather than public education. McKinsey and McKinsey (2007) conducted a study of the top performing educational systems in South Korea, Finland, and Singapore and reported that 100% of their teachers performed in the top third of their graduation classes. Meanwhile, in the United States, 23% of teachers come from the top third of graduating college classes. These statistics alone suggest that in the abovementioned countries, a teaching job is seen as esteemed, whereas in the United States it is viewed in a lower light.

Schoenfeld (2002) suggested that teaching is one of the most demanding and least understood and rewarded occupations in the United States. Often teachers have reported feeling as though the communities' comments to teachers and about teachers are belittling (Schoenfeld, 2002). Hoyle (2001) suggested that communities are said to feel uncertainty about teachers' expertise. This ambiguity does not give individuals a sense of confidence or the morale necessary to carry out the job of a teacher.

Personality

Ozer and Benet-Martinez (2006) stated that most personality psychology theories strive to define systematic patterns of steady individual differences in behavior and examine how those behaviors affect upcoming behaviors. Personality has been defined as "that which tells what a man will do when placed in a given situation" (Rothe, 2017, p. 25). Personality is "codetermined by genetic and constitutional disposition, on the one hand, and interaction of the individual with

environmental, particularly psychosocial, features in the course of psychological development, on the other” (Kernberg, 2016, p. 145).

Kernberg (2016) suggested that personality is composed of six other component systems which include: temperament, object relations, character, identity, ethical value systems, and cognitive capability. The first component temperament is defined as “singular changes in emotional, motor, and attentional reactivity measured by latency, intensity, and recovery of response, and self-regulation processes such as an effortful control that modulates reactivity” (Rueda & Rothbart, 2009, p. 20). Temperament can be seen in the newborn and measured in the fetus (Rothbart, 2007). Temperament is often related to social behaviors such as understanding and integrity. There are many dimensions to temperament. The dimensions specifically related to disposition are the Big Five personality factors of extraversion, neuroticism, and conscientiousness (Rothbart, 2007).

Character is another component of personality. While character has been difficult to define, James suggested character is the intellectual and ethical approach that leaves one feeling most intensely and severely vibrant and thriving (Wright & Lauer, 2013). Character is seen through an individual’s character traits. These character traits are the “behavioral expression of the internal models of behavior derived from internalized self and object representation units, express the reflection of past experience on the present, [and are] mostly automatized, functioning modes of reaction” (Kernberg, 2016, p. 7).

Another important component of personality according to Kernberg (2016) is intelligence or cognitive ability, which is dependent on genetic disposition and early experiences. “In general, a high cognitive potential facilitates an ever more realistic and subtle perception of the

environment and the capacity to respond adequately to cognitive cues” (Kernberg, 2016, p. 15). Thus, those individuals who have higher intelligence are better problem solvers.

Reason for Personality Differences

An individual is a unique, one-of-a-kind person with his or her own heredity and background. Meyers and Meyers (2010) suggested that in order to understand personality differences one must understand that often what seems is something that is left up to change is not due to change at all but rather the logical results of some basic differences in mental function. They suggest that the difference in people are referring to the way that people choose to use their minds. An individual’s perceptions and his or her judgements are the two areas of major difference. Meyers and Meyers (2010) suggested that perception and judgement make up the majority of a persons’ mental activity and control an individual’s behaviors. This is because perception is what an individual sees in a situation and how they decide to react based off how they interpret the situation. An individual’s perceptions come into existence either through that individual’s five senses or his or her intuition. As soon as a child chooses his or her preferred method of perception, a basic difference in development has started (Meyers & Meyers, 2010). The method that is chosen is used more and more strongly developed. This method is used more from childhood all the way through adulthood. This creates a major personality distinction among individuals who choose different preferred methods of perception.

The way an individual judges also creates a divide in personality. An individual either judges by feeling or thinking (Meyers & Meyers, 2010). Just as in perception, neither way of judging has been found to be more beneficial to an individual; however, it’s been found as a way to understand the differences in individuals.

Meyers and Meyers (2010) also suggested a true difference in individual personality is illustrated in the individuals' outer and inner worlds. This is simply to say that introverts do their best work by thinking through a problem internally. Extraverts do their best work thinking critically in the moment of the problem. Meyers and Meyers applied these concepts to determine how everyone's personality is different than those around them. This way of thinking allows for individuals to use their own tendencies and preferences to determine how they differ from others.

Personality Type

The concept of personality has been around for many years. Allport and Odbert were the first individuals to publish work on personality traits in 1921. The main concept in this published work was that while an environment is critical to the way an individual behaves, everyone has a core portion that is specific to them and suggests a specific trait. They also found that adjectives were a good source to describe the characteristics of the different traits (Allport & Odbert, 1936).

Jung was the first to categorize people based on s extraversion and introversion (Jankowski, 2015). Jung also discovered four personality functions that form two contrasting sets: sensing-intuition and thinking-feeling (Jankowski, 2015). Based on Jung's theory, Gray and Wheelwright developed the first personality test in 1938 to determine an individual's specific personality type (Jankowski, 2015). Since the first personality test was developed, many researchers have continued to develop tools to accurately identify an individual's personality.

Lykourantzou, Antonious, Naudet, and Dow (2016) suggested that personality matters in all aspects of life. McCabe and Fleeson (2016) believed knowing an individual's personality traits can aid in the process appropriate for accomplishing a goal. Identifying and adjusting according to an individual's personality traits has been found to be important in study after study

and in all aspects of life (Sulea, Van Beek, Sarbescu, Virga, & Schaufeli, 2015; Kankaras, 2017; Bansal, Zahedi, & Gefen, 2016). Tieger, Barron, and Tieger (2014) wrote a book that uses personality type to identify the work one was meant to do, which in return helps change an individual's life and make one feel more productive, appreciated, and satisfied.

Determining a personality type is not done by sex, race, or appearance. Brogaard (2016) stated that one automatically makes inferences about personality traits of the people one is around; however, these assumed traits are not always accurate. While it is not easy to predict personality based off appearance, the strongest predictor of life satisfaction and happiness is neuroticism (DeNeve & Cooper, 1998). So, if one is identified as an overall happy person, one could correctly identify that individual's trait.

New research has suggested that persons may have the ability to change their self-reported personality traits through volitional avenues (Hudson & Fraley, 2015). Amen (2015) suggested that an individual can change his or her mind, which in return can change one's life. While some researchers believe that an individual can positively change his or her personality, others believe that individuals can change their behaviors but are born with their individual personality traits (Roberts, Luo, Briley, Chow, Su, & Hill, 2017). An individual's personality type is a large identifier for the outcome of an individual's overall life.

Personality Testing for Employers

Meyerowitz (2016) suggested that employers' use of personality tests to evaluate the best eligible candidates for jobs is steadily rising. Stabile (2002) stated the reason for the shift in personality testing during hiring is due to the difficulty of getting significant information from reference checks. When applying for a new job, a job candidate does not put down references who will speak ill of him or her, but rather, the candidate puts down references who will speak

highly of him or her. There have been many different processes used when hiring someone for a position. The use of a personality test as a part of an employer selection process can be traced to the 1930s (Calvasina & Calvasina, 2016). Today, even organizations like the National Football League use personality tests for screening recruits prior to giving an individual a contract before draft day (Goldstein & Epstein, 2008). “Currently, most Fortune 1,000 companies use some form of psychological or personality test and as testing costs decrease and availability increases, small and medium-sized companies have largely been adopting them as well” (Menjoge, 2003, p. 326). While some employers opt for personality testing, others opt for training interviewers to assess job applicants’ personalities through interviews, which they feel goes beyond self-rating tests (Powell & Bourdage, 2016).

The employers who opt to have candidates participate in personality testing as a part of the hiring process often do so because of the high cost associated with turnover (Calvasina & Calvasina, 2016). Employers often choose to give potential hires a personality test in order to determine which candidates have undesirable traits (Stabile, 2002). Identifying employees’ personality types through personality testing will help the administration find jobs that cause fulfillment in the assignment of specific job-related tasks according to personality type. Anwar (2017) suggested that extroverted, agreeable, conscientious, and open individuals may embrace most comprehensive sharing undertakings effectively. Anwar also suggested jobs requiring scientific advancement and originality would be best suited for people high in creative self-efficacy (Anwar, 2017). This research suggests that each type of task that one encounters in a given profession would best be addressed with a specific personality type; therefore, an employer knowing an individual employee’s personality type could be beneficial (Anwar, 2017).

Stress on Teachers

There are many different avenues that contribute to a teacher's stress. Teachers' stress can come from the profession or from their own personal lives. Teaching has often been reported as a high-stress profession (Kyriacou, 2001; Richards, 2012). Teachers have reported higher levels of stress recently than in years past. According to Greenburg, Brown, and Abenavoli (2016), teacher stress has worsened and is now at a record high. Ages (2011) suggested that this is because of the constant change experienced in the education profession. Moore (2012) stated that higher levels of stress are due to teachers added duties and responsibilities, unrealistic requests, financial problems, and worries. Stauffer and Mason (2013) conducted a study on 64 elementary school teachers. These teachers indicated that political mandates, lack of support from administration, and lack of appreciation were their most common stressors.

Richards (2012) reported five symptoms of stress that teachers reported, including loss of enthusiasm, feeling overwhelmed with expectations, physical ailments such as migraines, stomach aches, and high blood pressure, as well as the job affecting one's personal life in a negative manner. Klassen, Usher, and Bong (2010) conducted research that suggested teacher stress has been connected to negative concerns including teacher attrition, absenteeism, poor performance, depression, and burnout. These responses are due to the body's response to stress, which is to either flee from or fight the hazard or stressor. Those teachers who leave the profession are obviously fleeing from the stress of teaching.

It is important for teachers to know how to cope with stress. Richards (2012) identified five strategies teachers used to deal with stress: good friends and family, a good sense of humor, time for either reflection or solitude, acknowledging the stress and believing that it can be overcome, and keeping a positive attitude. When a teacher can deal with stress in a healthy

manner, he or she has greater teacher worth and is more efficient in the classroom. At times, teachers will use a direct-action technique to deal with stress and leave the teaching profession. Kyriacou (2001) stated, “[F]atigue, nervous tension, frustration, wear and tear, difficulties adapting to pupils, personal fragility, and routine” are all reasons a teacher might feel stress and choose to leave the profession.

Teacher Self-efficacy

Teacher self-efficacy was first defined in 1977 by Berman as “the extent to which the teacher believes that he or she has the capacity to affect student performance.” Often, teacher self-efficacy is broken down into teacher efficacy, the effectiveness of a teacher’s work on actual student outcomes and personal efficacy, and a teacher’s belief that he or she has the ability to impact student learning (Kerry-Henkel, 2017). Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2010) broke this down even further into six elements that include instruction, modification of instruction to fit students’ needs, motivating students, classroom management, cooperation with colleagues and parents, and coping with challenges.

Eroglu and Unlu (2015) conducted a study on teachers who were entering the teaching profession as physical educators. The purpose of the study was to determine if there was a relationship between teacher candidates’ self-efficacy levels and their attitudes toward the profession of teaching. Eroglu and Unlu found that prospective teachers with high self-efficacy were more likely to have the skills required to motivate students both in their classes and in their education, overall. These findings demonstrate the importance of teacher self-efficacy on the classroom, along with the feelings of success for the teacher.

Teacher self-efficacy is important for many reasons. Lacks (2016) suggested the greatest result of elevated teacher self-efficacy is the influence that it has on pupil achievement. Aloe,

Amo, and Shanahan (2013) suggested that teachers with significant feelings and amounts of burnout, along with teachers with lower levels of self-efficacy, are more likely to leave the teaching profession than their counterparts. In their study, Aloe et al. (2013) found a significant relationship between classroom management self-efficacy and emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and lower personal accomplishments. Aloe and colleagues suggested that these are areas seen in burnout, which suggests the level of a teacher's self-efficacy can determine a teacher's burnout.

Teacher Burnout

Aloe, Amo, and Shanahan (2014) suggested that teacher burnout is not only a concern in the United States, but is a global issue in countries like Australia, China, Korea, the Netherlands, and Spain. Espeland (2006) defined burnout as a condition of low levels of energy that often results in diminished self-assurance on the job and depleted passion concerning one's career. In teaching, burnout has been shown to impact a teacher's ability to work efficiently with students and reduce the teacher's capacity to address disruptive student behaviors, as well as impact his or her perception of his or her overall job satisfaction (Brouwers & Tomic, 2000). Often, greater levels of burnout have been associated with greater structural inflexibility in the school setting, lower internal individual rewards, lower co-worker support, and lower teacher self-efficacy (Kerry-Henkel, 2017).

After years of conducting interviews, administering surveys to teachers, and recording observations, Maslach and Jackson (1981) identified three areas of burnout in teachers: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment. These were areas that were at times unidentified by the teacher but observed through a series of questions. With these areas identified, Maslach and Jackson developed the MBI-Educators Survey to specifically

measure burnout in educators. The MBI-Educators Survey is one of the most widely used surveys to measure teacher burnout today.

Lack of support is one of the main areas of burnout that has been identified by this survey (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Teachers who do not feel supported, especially by administration, often experience burnout early on in their teaching careers (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Maslach, Schaufeli, and Leiter (2001) later suggested that both situational and individual factors impact levels of burnout. They suggested that situational factors can include both occupational and organizational characteristics. Individual factors include teachers' demographic features, personality traits, and educational levels, as well as experience (Kerry-Henkel, 2017).

Personality Type and Burnout

Personality can play an important role in burnout (Ghorpade, Lackritz, & Singh, 2007). Burnout has been defined as a two-dimensional phenomenon, consisting of both attitudinal and behavioral components and representing a significant loss of motivation, enthusiasm, and energy (Forney, Wallace-Schutzman, & Wiggers, 1982). Burnout can be influenced by the ways in which individuals approach and respond to various challenges in their lives (Salmela-Aro, Tolvanen, & Nurmi, 2009).

Alarcon, Eschleman, and Bowling (2009) found that burnout could be related to one of three dimensions; therefore, they conducted a study that suggested each personality type is related to one of three burnout dimensions. The study found that some personality traits yielded stronger relationship with burnout than others. An example of this was “emotional stability, positive affectivity, and negative affectivity, [which] all had stronger relationships to emotional exhaustion than did the other personality traits” (Alarcon, Eschleman, & Bowling, 2009, p. 252). Burnout often comes from job stress, which can quickly lead to attrition (Lee, 2017). Lee (2017)

found this to be true in a study conducted on physical education teachers. While many believe that physical education is one of the easiest jobs in the school, the job has many different dimensions.

Kokkinos (2007) conducted a study on elementary education teachers and determined that personality was a significant predictor of burnout. The study's results were in line with that of Watson, Clark, and Harkness (1994), which suggested that individuals high in neuroticism experienced more negative emotions and were more susceptible to burnout. "Teachers with high scores in conscientiousness and extraversion and low scores in neuroticism were more likely to experience feelings of increased personal accomplishment, and therefore low burnout" (Kokkinos, 2007). Openness, another area of personality, was found to be a predictor of burnout. Teachers with high levels of openness were found to experience greater feelings of personal accomplishment, which was a direct reflection of burnout (Kokkinos, 2007). The openness of an individual determines how deeply he or she feels, which could lead to the feelings one experiences during burnout.

Nieto (2003) found that even in the most difficult circumstances with the most ordinary students, good teachers stay in the teaching occupation for reasons that have more to do with their passion than anything else. Richardson (1998) found that a personality characteristic of teachers is that they can at times resist change and cling to their old ways. This lack of desire to change can lead to a teacher feeling burnout. Warren Little (1992) suggested that teachers must broaden their perceived responsibilities to the school and community, which could help them use their personalities on a larger scale. A teacher's personality could be considered one of the most important things a teacher brings to work.

Teacher Personalities

Many researchers have studied personality and how it relates to teacher effectiveness and student performance. Rushton, Morgan, and Richard (2007) found that the typical elementary teacher follows the criteria for both S (sensing) and J (judging) and a combined ISFJ (intuition, sensing, feeling, and judging) profile in the Myers Briggs. While this has been the typical personality type that elementary teachers have been identified as having, Clark and Guest (1995) suggested that “more risk-taking catalysts, visionaries, and troubleshooters will be needed, as teachers expand their roles to become motivators, mentors, counselors, and guides” as education changes. Many have suggested that the typical personality type of elementary school teachers is not likely to meet the needs of the ever-changing field of education (Clark & Guest, 1995; Sears, Kennedy, & Kaye, 1997).

While many have suggested the need for a specific personality in teachers to reach today’s youth, Zhang (2007) suggested the need for a teacher-student style match. Zhang found that an overall specific educator personality type was not necessary in education today, but rather, each individual student, because of his or her intellectual style, has a need for a teacher with a specific personality type. Sulea, Van Beek, Sarbescu, Virga, and Schaufeli (2015) conducted a study that determined a student’s personality, paired with a teacher’s specific personality type, could create engagement, boredom, or burnout among students.

Student learning styles have been found to be key in determining the most effective teaching styles for students. Komarraju, Karau, Schmeck, and Avdic (2011) found that all four learning styles were associated with conscientiousness, which showed the greatest connection to a student’s grade point average. Trust is relevant to student success in the classroom. Conscientiousness, extraversion, and openness are the personality traits with the biggest predictors of providing trust (Gerris, Delsing, & Oud, 2010).

Summary

The education system is in crisis with the amount of teachers who have left the profession prior to retirement. Much research has suggested that burnout is a primary reason for teachers attrition. Job satisfaction is another chief reason teachers leave the profession (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011). Personality traits have been found to have a significance on many aspects of an individual's life, including one's happiness in his or her career choice (Brown, 2002). Personality tests are being used in many areas of the business world to determine the correct job to fit an individual's personality, but these tests have not been used in the education profession. With teacher retention being a considerable problem in public education, conducting a study on the personalities of those teachers who left the profession before retirement is necessary.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

This study provides an initial understanding of how personality and sex are distributed between teachers who left the profession prior to retirement and those who stayed in the classroom until retirement. A quantitative causal-comparative research design was used to address the research question and the corresponding null hypotheses. The details of the design, the participants, the setting, procedures, and analysis are described below.

Design

A causal-comparative research design was used to determine if there was a statistically significant difference in teachers who left the classroom before retirement, teachers who officially retired under normal circumstances, biological sex, and personality type as measured by the Big Five Inventory-2. This study aimed to understand the reasons an individual might choose to leave the classroom or to stay until retirement. A causal-comparative design was selected because the researcher was looking for variations between naturally occurring groups to find differences in years spent teaching in the classroom (Gall et al., 2007). In question one, the dependent variable was personality type, which was measured by the following categories: extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, open-mindedness, and neuroticism. In question two, the dependent variable was also personality type and the independent variable was biological sex (McCrae & John, 1992).

Another reason a causal-comparative design was chosen for this research study was the frequent use of the design in studies where the independent variables were not manipulated and interventions were not implemented (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). In a non-experimental and non-correlational study, a causal-comparative design is the most appropriate design.

Research Questions

RQ1: Is there a difference in the distribution of the personality types (e.g. openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism) of teachers who left the classroom before retirement and teachers who officially retired under normal circumstances as measured by the BFI-2?

RQ2: Is there a difference in the distribution of personality types (e.g. openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism) of both biological sexes of teachers who left the classroom before retirement?

Null Hypotheses

H01: The samples selected (for teachers who left the classroom before retirement and teachers who officially retired under normal circumstances) will follow the hypothesized distributions for the various personality types (openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism).

H02: The samples selected for biological sexes of teachers will follow the hypothesized distributions for the various personality types (openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism) for teachers who left the classroom before retirement.

Participation and Setting

The participants for this study were drawn from a non-probability convenience sample of former teachers who left the profession before retirement and those who retired under normal circumstances from two different school districts in Southeastern Virginia. There are approximately 2,280 teachers employed each year in the two districts combined with a collective retention rate of about 62% each year. The two districts are very different from each other. The first district is a rural district with two high schools, two middle schools, and five elementary

schools. The second district is comprised of more suburban communities and consists of four high schools, four middle schools, and 10 elementary schools. All participants held a valid teaching license for at least one year.

For this causal-comparative study, the number of participants sampled was 180, which surpassed the required minimum for a medium effect size. According to Gall et al. (2007), 120 participants is the required minimum for a medium effect size with a statistical power of .7 at the .05 alpha level. The participants were volunteers who taught for at least one year with a valid teaching license.

Instrumentation

The instrument used in this study was the Big Five Inventory-2 (BFI-2). This instrument was copy-written in 2015 by John and Soto. This self-report form is used to measure the five designated personality domains, including extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, negative emotionality, and open-mindedness (Soto & John, 2017). The instrument consists of 60 statements that a participant can respond to by choosing which number on the Likert scale applies to him or her individually. The responses are as follows: Agree strongly = 5, Agree a little = 4, Neutral; no opinion = 3, Disagree a little = 2, Disagree strongly = 1. When scoring the instrument, some questions must be reverse scored. After the reverse scoring is completed for the designated items, the total number for each domain is calculated to determine which area is strongest for an individual. The BFI-2 had a reliability of 0.80 (Soto & John, 2015). Permission was granted to use the instrument.

This instrument was first published in the *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* in 2017. It has not yet been used in studies other than those already conducted as it was being tested for validity and reliability. The BFI-2 was developed from the Big Five Inventory that has

been used in many studies. Specht, Egloff, and Schmukle (2011) used the original Big Five Inventory to determine if one's personality changes over the course of one's life. Specht et al. found that the most common reason for one's personality to change was outside situations. They also found that personality does change throughout a lifespan, with more changes occurring in young and old ages and a more consistent personality in the middle ages. Soto, John, Gosling, and Potter (2011) conducted a cross-sectional study to determine age differences in personality traits. The results were similar to the study done by Specht, Egloff, and Schmukle (2011).

Procedures

Prior to the start of the study, an application for research approval was made to the Institutional Review Board. Once approval of the study was given, an email was sent out to all current and former employees of the two school districts participating in the study. The email suggested that anyone who was formerly a teacher but has left the teaching profession for any reason, including retirement, was requested to volunteer to participate in the study. The researcher provided the participants with an opportunity to complete the BFI-2 online through a provided link. The participants completed the BFI-2 and answered other questions including if they left the classroom prior to retirement, if they stayed in the classroom until retirement, if they held a valid teacher's license and taught at least one year, as well as their biological sex. The individuals did not identify themselves, but rather the information provided was kept confidential, ensuring anonymity. The researcher then scored the individual BFI-2 surveys, which guaranteed the data was securely kept on a locked laptop. The data was then inputted into Excel and Statistical Analysis System, SAS, where statistical analyses were performed.

Data Analysis

The data was inputted into Excel and Statistical Analysis System, SAS, for the researcher to analyze. A Chi-square test of goodness of fit is a “nonparametric statistical test to determine whether research data in the form of frequency counts are distributed differently for different samples” (Gall et al., 2007, p.325). A Chi-square test of goodness of fit was performed on the entire population to see if there was any personality type that was dominant in those who left the classroom before retirement, or disproportionate. A Chi-square test of goodness of fit was also done on the individual sex groups for those who left the classroom pre retirement. The participants who retired under normal circumstances were the control group. This Chi-squared test allowed for differences to be determined. The data was analyzed at the alpha $p < .05$ level.

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

Overview

This study was designed to determine if personality type can be used as an indicator of teacher attrition. The study was used to determine which personality type most often left the profession before retirement, which personality stayed until official retirement, and the differences in male and female scores for each personality type of those who left the profession of teaching before retirement. This chapter will discuss the descriptive statistics of both biological sexes and the personality types of the Big Five Inventory: Openness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism.

Research Questions

RQ1: Is there a difference in the distribution of the personality types (e.g. openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism) of teachers who left the classroom before retirement and teachers who officially retired under normal circumstances as measured by the BFI-2?

RQ2: Is there a difference in the distribution of personality types (e.g. openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism) of both biological sexes of teachers who left the classroom before retirement?

Null Hypotheses

H01: The samples selected (for teachers who left the classroom before retirement and teachers who officially retired under normal circumstances) will follow the hypothesized distributions for the various personality types (openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism).

H02: The samples selected for biological sexes of teachers will follow the hypothesized distributions for the various personality types (openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism) for teachers who left the classroom before retirement.

Descriptive Findings and Data Analysis

Research Question #1

Is there a difference in the distribution of the personality types (e.g. openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism) of teachers who left the classroom before retirement and teachers who officially retired under normal circumstances as measured by the BFI-2? The null hypothesis (H01) states: The samples selected (for teachers who left the classroom before retirement and teachers who officially retired under normal circumstances) will follow the hypothesized distributions for the various personality types (openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism).

Research question one focused on two groups, teachers who left the classroom before retirement and teachers who officially retired as classroom teachers. The means, standard deviations, minimum values, and maximum values were computed. The descriptive statistics for the study are shown in Table 1.

Table 1

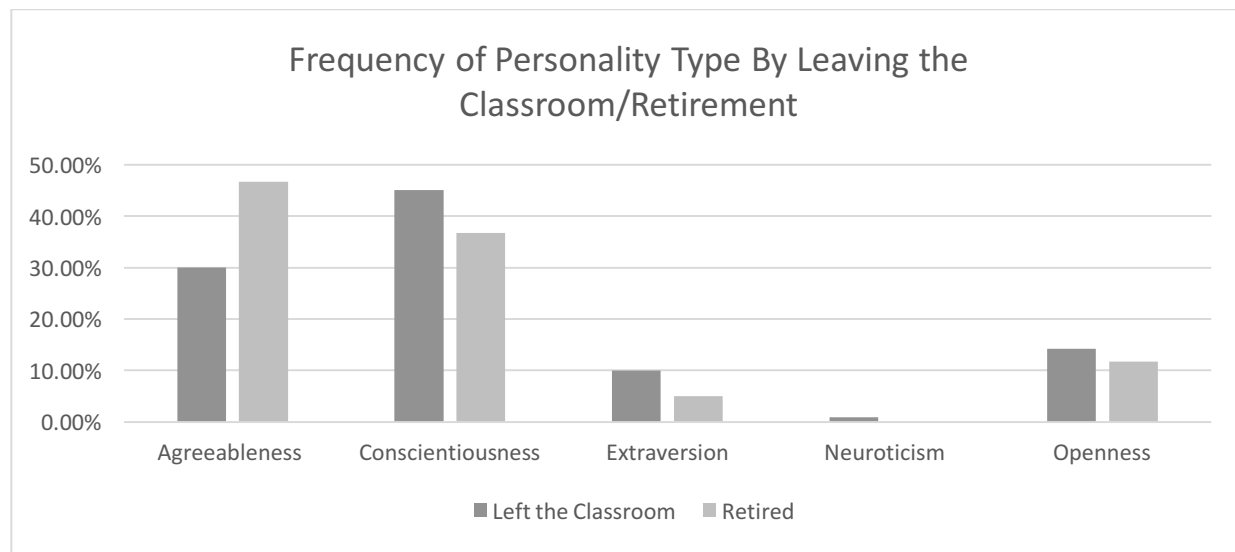
Descriptive Statistics

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Total Responses	90.5	52.106	1	180
Extraversion	46.467	6.649	25	60
Agreeableness	52.178	5.7888	29	60
Conscientiousness	51.978	6.535	32	60
Neuroticism	25.778	7.378	12	52
Openness	47.267	7.801	21	60

A Chi Square test of goodness of fit was performed to evaluate differences between groups and categorical independent variables (retirement and those who left the teaching profession early) and the dependent variable (personality type). Figure 1 shows that the conscientious personality type was found more frequently in those who left the classroom than in those who remained teaching until retirement. It also shows that agreeableness was more common in those who retired as classroom teachers than in those who left the classroom prior to retirement. These findings were worth mentioning but were examined even deeper through a chi-square test of goodness of fit.

Figure 1

Frequency of Personality Type By Leaving the Classroom/Retirement



After determining that there were differences in the personality types of those who left teaching early compared to those who retired as a classroom teacher, each personality type was analyzed to conclude if there were statistical differences in the scores of each personality type for the two groups of participants. A chi-square test of goodness of fit was used. The formula in Figure 2 shows the formula used to calculate the chi-square scores for each personality type.

The O represents the observed value and the E represents the expected value. The personality types of the participants who retired in the classroom under normal circumstances were used as the control group or expected value.

Figure 2

Chi-Square Test of Goodness of Fit Formula

$$\chi^2 = \left[\frac{(O - E)^2}{E} \right]$$

The only significant difference at the $p = 0.05$ was between the agreeableness personality type where $\chi^2 = 4.848$. This can be seen in Figure 3. These results indicate that those who left the classroom are statistically less agreeable than those who retired in the classroom. Even though conscientiousness, extraversion, neuroticism, and openness are more common among those teachers who left the classroom prior to retirement, there is no statistical difference because each chi-square score was below the critical chi-square statistic value with 1 degree of freedom, 3.84. Table 2 shows each individual personality type and the chi-square score associated with the personality type.

Figure 3

Chi-Square scores

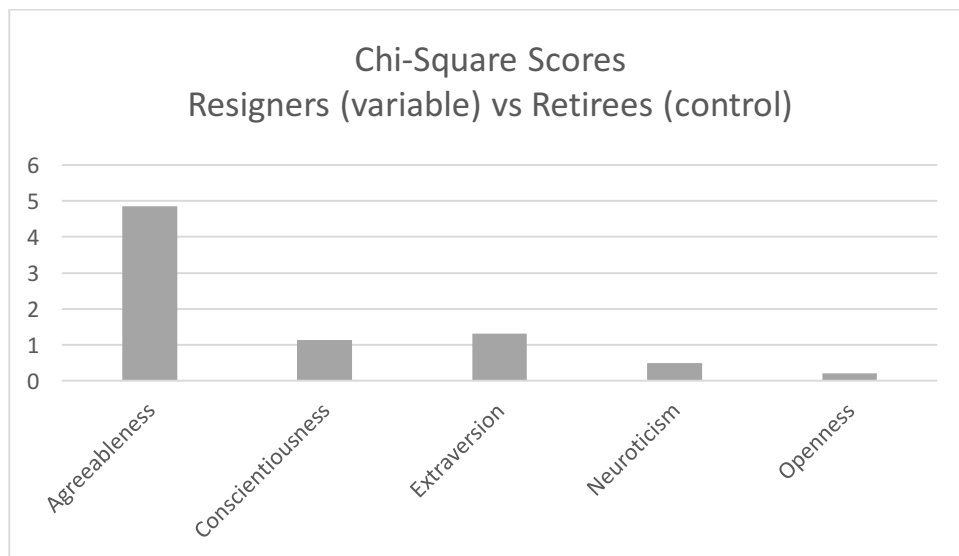


Table 2

Chi- Square scores

Personality Type	χ^2 Score
Agreeableness	4.848
Conscientiousness	1.138
Extraversion	1.308
Neuroticism	0.503
Openness	0.216

These tests conclude that the null hypothesis can be rejected only for the quality of agreeableness. None of the other qualities showed significant differences between the observed and expected frequencies

Research Question #2

Is there a difference in the distribution of personality types (e.g. openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism) of both biological sexes of teachers who left the classroom before retirement? The null hypothesis (H02) states: The samples selected for biological sexes of teachers will follow the hypothesized distributions for the various personality types (openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism) for teachers who left the classroom before retirement.

Research question two focused on two groups, males and females who left the classroom before retirement. The means, standard deviations, minimum values and maximum values were computed. The descriptive statistics for the study are shown in Table 3.

Table 3

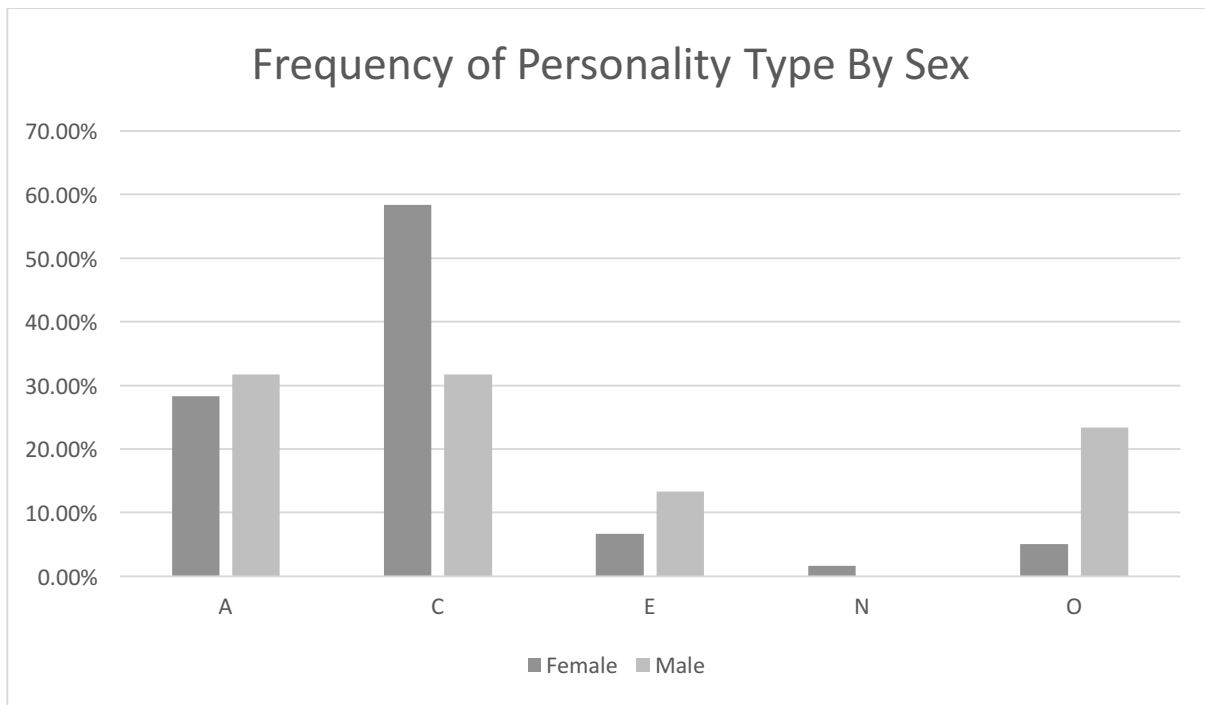
Descriptive Statistics

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Total Responses	60.5	34.785	1	120
Extraversion	46.575	6.377	28	58
Agreeableness	51.122	6.051	29	60
Conscientiousness	51.542	6.750	32	60
Neuroticism	26.592	7.769	12	52
Openness	46.717	8.006	21	60

A chi-squared test of goodness of fit was performed to determine if there was a deviation in the personality types of males and females who left the classroom before retirement. Figure 4 shows that the conscientiousness personality type was higher for females who left the classroom than men who left the classroom. It also shows that openness was more common among males who left the classroom before retirement, along with the extraversion personality type. These findings were examined even deeper through a chi-square test of goodness of fit.

Figure 4

Frequency of Personality Type by Sex



A chi-square test of goodness of fit was performed to determine if there was a difference in proportions between men and women for each personality type. The formula that was used is shown in Figure 5.

Figure 5

Chi-Square Test of Goodness of Fit Formula

$$\chi^2 = \left[\frac{(O - E)^2}{E} \right]$$

Using this test, a statistically significant difference was found between the proportion of women identified as conscientious versus the proportion of men identified as conscientious (at a test level of $p=0.05$) where $\chi^2 = 7.551$, and a statistically significant difference between the proportion of men identified as open versus the proportion of women identified as open ($p= 0.05$) where $\chi^2 = 7.209$. There were significantly more women identified as conscientious and significantly more men identified as open for those participants who left the classroom before retirement. This is illustrated in Figure 6. While there were differences in the other personality types, they were not statistically significant. Table 4 shows each individual personality type and the chi-square score associated with the personality type.

Figure 6

Chi-Square Scores figure for both sexes

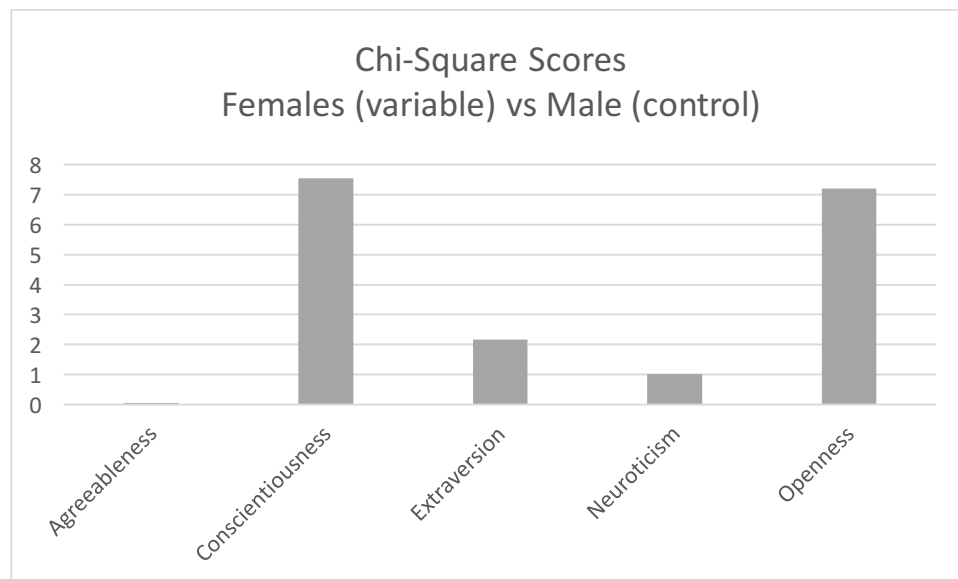


Table 4

Chi- Square scores for personality types for both sexes

Personality Type	χ^2 Score
Agreeableness	0.04
Conscientiousness	7.551

Extraversion	2.155
Neuroticism	1.008
Openness	7.209

These tests indicate that the null hypothesis can be rejected only for conscientiousness and openness personality types among sex and those individuals who left the classroom before retirement.

Summary of Results

Because the causal-comparative research design has the “purpose of explaining educational phenomena through the study of cause-and-effect relationships” (Gall et al., 2007, p. 306), a causal-comparative design was implemented to evaluate the data in this study. The study began by gathering data via an inventory on personality type. The data consisted of scores for each personality type, which provided the dependent variable. The primary goal of the study was to determine if teachers who left the profession prior to retirement had different personality types than those who stayed until retirement. The secondary goal was to determine if there were differences in the scores of each personality type in relation to the sex of those who left prior to retirement. After completing the chi-square test of goodness of fit, it was determined there were some personality types that were more evident among those who left the teaching profession prior to retirement than those who retired from the classroom. There were also difference found among the different sexes of those who left prior to retirement. These results allowed for statistical significance to be found among the data groups.

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS

Overview

This chapter will provide a discussion of the study. It will also provide implications and limitations for the study, as well as recommendation for future research.

Discussion

The purpose of this causal-comparative study was to determine if there were statistically significant differences among teachers who left the profession before retirement and those who retired under normal circumstances, as well as differences in personality type. The study also assessed the differences in personality type between males and females who left the classroom prior to retirement and those who retired from the classroom. To determine if there was a difference, participants were administered a 60-question survey to assess personality type. The inventory was scored, giving each personality type its own score, with 60 being the highest score and zero being the lowest score able to be received. The BFI-2 is a reliable and valid personality measure. The test introduces a vigorous hierarchical structure, controls for individual differences in acquiescent responding, and contains the original inventories conceptual attention, concision, and ease of understanding (Soto & John, 2017).

This quantitative study evaluated the influence of personality type on teacher attrition. The frequency of each personality type was calculated among those who left the profession before retirement compared to those who retired under normal circumstances. The null hypothesis was analyzed using a chi-squared test of goodness of fit.

According to Lewin's (1951) interactional theory, people can fit into an organization according to their own personality types, and if they do not fit, they are more likely to leave. This theory is where the person-job fit theory originated and where the results from this study

fall into place. Person-job fit has been defined as the total compatibility between a person employed and the general work atmosphere, occurring when “at least one entity provides what the other needs, or they share similar fundamental characteristics, or both” (Kristof, 1996, p. 4). A person’s skills and abilities are one aspect associated with the person-job fit theory. An individual’s needs, values, and preferences associated with an individual’s personality type is the other aspect of the theory. This person-job fit theory would suggest that individuals of similar personality types are satisfied and stay in any given profession. With this being true, the research found that agreeable personality types were more likely to stay in the teaching profession. Agreeable personality type individuals are known to be adaptable, kind, and patient. They value positive interactions and relationships with others. These attributes are all very important in the classroom and when working with children. Agreeableness was positively correlated with gratefulness and thankfulness. A need for gratefulness and thankfulness have been found in education; therefore, teachers with an agreeable personality type have been found to stay in the teaching profession until retirement. The person-job fit theory, according to the first research question, suggests that individuals with an agreeableness personality type are a good-fit for the teaching profession.

According to the second research question, with more females with conscientiousness personality types leaving the profession than males, it can be concluded that female conscientiousness personality types do not fit into the teaching profession as well as females with the other personality types. According to Costa and McCrae (1992), the conscientiousness personality type is more organized and reliable; however, female conscientiousness types were not found to be reliable to their profession. Conscientious type individuals are known to work toward long-term goals (Soto, Kronauer, & Liang, 2016). Long-term has been defined in many

different ways but most often it describes a three- to four-year time frame (Hobbs, 2017). In the teaching profession, each year a new group of students requires a new set of goals. This demand eliminates true long-term goals, which means that teaching is not a good fit job for female conscientiousness type individuals.

This study also found that males who teach and identify with an openness personality type are more likely to leave the profession. This was an interesting finding due to Tornroos's, Jokela's, and Hakulinen's (2019) research, which suggested that the "highest mean levels of openness were found in culture, media and sports, and teaching and research professionals" (p.) While this study did not take into account gender specifically, the results of the two studies were not congruent. This was also an interesting finding because of the work of Hassan, Vina, and Ithnin (2017). These researchers found that individuals with high levels of openness have a higher level of job satisfaction. The reason was that personality types that have the ability to be open to changes in an organization are better able to remain positive. While this may be true in some professions, this was not true of men in the teaching profession.

Holland's RIASEC career theory suggests that individuals all fall under a category according to personality and those individuals seek out jobs that fit their personality types. The theory states that individuals who find a job that fits their personalities will be satisfied and successful. Ultimately, an individual who retires in the job that they began in would be considered satisfied in that job, or else they would have left the profession. According to the 60 individuals who retired under normal circumstances who participated in this study, the most common personality type was agreeableness. 46.67% of those who retired as classroom teachers were identified as agreeable personality types. The five-factor model of personality states that agreeableness personality types have behaviors such as kindness, understanding, and patience

(Barrick and Mount, 1991). Sarwarm, Hameed, and Aftab (2013) found that agreeable personality types were able to fit into most work environments; according to their work, teaching was not different. This was also true in Tornroos's, Jokela's, and Hakulinen's (2019) research that used the person-environment fit theory and found that agreeableness was most commonly found in careers of personal care, leisure, and teaching occupations.

The five-factor model of personality suggests that personality can be categorized based on five dimensions: Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism, and Openness to Experience (McCrae & John, 1992). This five-factor model of personality suggests that agreeableness personality type individuals have been found to be able to fit into most workplace environments. Costa, McCrae, and Dye (1991) found that individuals who were agreeable were more apt to handle conflicts with cooperation rather than aggression. This style of dealing with conflict has become a prominent reason why agreeable individuals are more often complacent in their workplaces. Cooperation is greatly needed in the field of education among students and educators alike.

Professional Learning Communities is a method developed by Senge but later used for educational purpose by Myers and Myers in 1991. This method was developed and incorporated in many educational K-12 schools to create accountability and cohesion among teachers. Professional Learning Communities are considered best practice and have been known to create trust within an educational setting. Pedersen (2019) studied Professional Learning Communities and relational trust. Pedersen found that there was a focus on relationships that were necessary as a condition for community building and the cultivation of trust among Professional Learning Community members. Pedersen's work echoed that of Oliver's in 2010. This new way of fostering collaborative learning among teachers and educators would attract a specific

personality type. Agreeable individuals were found to be more likely to stay in the teaching profession. This type of personality would best fit in a Professional Learning Community because individuals who are agreeable are more focused on relationships when compared to other personality types. Overall, agreeable personality type individuals have been found to be the best fit for the teaching profession today.

Implications

This study is important to education because it helps fill the gap in the literature on the impact of personality types on those who leave teaching pre-retirement, as opposed to those who remain in the profession until retirement, as well as the differences in the personality types of the males and females who leave. The existing literature focuses on personality type and retention in many professions; however, teaching has not been researched.

The findings of this study suggest that many individuals with differing personality types become teachers. The most frequent personality types that enter into the profession were agreeableness and conscientiousness. The least frequent personality type was neuroticism. This information alone can help educational administration better understand the staff and what personality type the majority of their staff may have. Although many conscientiousness personality types become teachers, they are more likely to leave the teaching profession than an agreeable personality type individual. Determining what type of personality tends to leave a profession can help an individual determine if teaching is the right field for him or her or if he or she would be more likely to be retained in a different career. If an individual wants to become a teacher and is a conscientiousness personality type, perhaps he or she may choose to get a masters in educational leadership rather than teaching. This would allow for that individual to be able to move on from the classroom when needed but stay in the education field.

The rate at which teachers are leaving the classroom is a true problem in education. There is a need to determine how to raise the rate of retention in school districts. Agreeableness was found to be the personality type most common associated with retirement. If the goal of a school district is to hire and keep teachers, it would benefit the school district to hire individuals with an agreeable personality type. Many professions have individuals take a personality test prior to employment; however, education is not one of those professions. If a school district required an individual to take a personality test, the district could determine if teaching is a good fit job according to the individual's personality. The school district could also decide if the position was one that needed low turnover rate. The school district may look for an agreeable personality individual if they desire to have someone in the position for an extended period of time.

Teaching is not a job for all individuals. There is no real tangible reward, it is structured, there is accountability, and because of those things as well as many others, it is not the best job for all individuals. However, entering into the teaching profession is often decided at the collegiate level because it is considered an easy major, a major for girls with a desire to become a mother, a choice rather than being undecided in a major, or other reasons that are not dependent on a job being the best fit for an individual's personality type. It is time for the teaching profession to become more valuable and chosen rather than pushed or chosen because of a perceived ease about the profession. Often it has been expressed that the number of months one must work is a reason to choose teaching, but it is not. The results of this study suggest that for specific personality types, teaching is a better fit than for others. Having individuals know their own personality type and what the research says about their personality type in the

profession of teaching could help eliminate the problem of teacher attrition and misperception about the career.

Limitations

There were a few threats to the study, both internally and externally. The major internal limitation was the lack of life situations accounted for when considering teachers who left the teaching profession pre-retirement. There are some individuals who leave the classroom for reasons beyond their personalities, and these situations were not assessed in this study.

An external threat was that the participants did not have to provide any licensure proof in order to participate in the online study. While they were held to an ethical standard, it has not been confirmed that everyone who participated met the requirements through paperwork.

Along with these limitations was the limitation of the location of the participants. The participants were all from the same two school districts. The school districts do not have the most diverse staff, which means the results of the surveys lacked diversity. The school districts are also meeting the educational needs of a predominately middle to upper socio-economic community, which would attract a specific teacher profile. Not only was there a lack of ethnical diversity, but there was also a lack of socio-economic diversity.

Recommendations for Future Research

The conclusions of this study along with the study limitations suggest several opportunities for future research.

1. Using a similar sample but determining whether the individuals are still in an educational position or whether they have left the education field in its entirety would allow an understanding of knowledge about the personality types of those in leadership within a school district. The current study does not look at what individuals who left the teaching

profession prior to retirement currently do to earn an income. Determining if certain personality types that leave the teaching profession enter into higher education or educational leadership positions would help an individual determine what advanced educational degree they may also be interested in earning. If a certain personality type usually goes on to become principals, those individuals going into education field may choose a graduated degree in educational leadership rather than in pedagogy.

2. Determining the specific reason the participant chose to leave the profession would be beneficial for study. This would allow individuals with specific personality types to enter into the teaching profession while being forward thinking. This would also allow for those individuals to know reasons and life situations which may arise, which would be a determining factor for teacher attrition.
3. It is believed that the age of the individual taking the survey could provide insight into what was happening in society when an individual left the teaching profession. Gursoy, Chi, and Karadag (2013) found that work values were very different from generation to generation. This suggests that individuals who began teaching in the 1970s may have been more likely to stay until retirement compared to those who began teaching in the 1990s. Determining the year the individual began teaching and the year they he or she may provide insight into the values of work life per personality type associated with generation.
4. Having an overall understanding of the personality types of teachers who enter into the profession would be helpful when studying those who leave before retirement. Perhaps there are certain types of personality types who would not consider entering into the teaching profession at all. These individuals may be drawn to different occupations.

Determining if there are specific personality types who enter teaching could help determine if there is a specific type that enters but then chooses to leave the profession.

5. The percentage of males who enter the teaching profession is significantly lower than the percentage of females. The percentage of male teachers in the teaching profession in 1870 was 40.9%; however, in 1990 the percentage of male teachers in the United States was only 21.9% (Johnson, 2008). Looking specifically at females and males separately may provide different results. Historically, males have been the financial providers for the home. Teaching is not a high salaried job, which may mean that males, no matter the personality, choose to leave the teaching profession to seek higher paying jobs. Women, however, are known to enjoy teaching because of the ease of being able to take care of a family and work. It would be interesting to determine the personality of those female teachers who left the profession before retirement and if they left after their children had finished K-12 education.

References

- Acker, J. (1990). Hierarchies, jobs, bodies: A theory of gendered organizations. *Gender & Society, 4*(2), 139–158.
- Ages, V. (2011). *Teacher perceptions and stress*. (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from Dissertations & Theses: A&I. (Publication No. AAT3434712).
- Alarcon, G., Eschleman, K. J., & Bowling, N. A. (2009). Relationships between personality variables and burnout: A meta-analysis. *Work & stress, 23*(3), 244-263.
- Aloe, A., Amo, L., & Shanahan, M. (2014). Classroom management self-efficacy and burnout: A multivariate meta-analysis. *Educational Psychology Review, 26*(1), 101-126.
- Altman, W. (2010). High morale and working wonders. *Engineering & Technology, 5*(3), 70-71.
- Adams, C. F. (1992). Finding psychic rewards in today's schools: A rebuttal. *The Clearing House, 65*(6), 343-347.
- Adoniou, M. (2015). 'It's very much taken as an insult if I say anything': Do new educators have a right to speak their mind? *Cambridge Journal of Education, 45*(4), 401-414.
- American Psychological Association. (2011). Definition of terms: Sex, gender identity, sex orientation. Retrieved from <https://www.apa.org/pi/lgbt/resources/sexuality-definitions.pdf>
- Anderson, M. (2018). *Who Are you?: The legal implications of employee personality testing*. Retrieved from <https://www.hrlawmatters.com/2018/04/legal-implications-employee-personality-testing/>

- Anwar, C. M. (2017). Linkages between personality and knowledge sharing behavior in the workplace: Mediating role of affective states. *E+ M Ekonomie a Management*, 20(2), 102.
- Bansal, G., Zahedi, F. M., & Gefen, D. (2016). Do context and personality matter? Trust and privacy concerns in disclosing private information online. *Information & Management*, 53(1), 1-21.
- Barlow, D. H., Sauer-Zavala, S., Carl, J. R., Bullis, J. R., & Ellard, K. K. (2014). The nature, diagnosis, and treatment of neuroticism: Back to the future. *Clinical Psychological Science*, 2(3), 344-365.
- Barrick, M. R., & Mount, M. K. (1991). The big five personality dimensions and job performance: A meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology*, 44, 1-26.
- Bastian, K. C., McCord, D. M., Marks, J. T., & Carpenter, D. (2017). A temperament for teaching? Associations between personality traits and beginning teacher performance and retention. *AERA Open*, 3(1), 1-17.
- Bean, C. A., & Holcombe, J. K. (1993). Personality types of oncology nurses. *Cancer Nursing*, 16(6), 479-485.
- Bentley, R. R., & Rempel, A. M. (1972). *Purdue teacher opinionaire*. West Lafayette, IN: Purdue Research Foundation.
- Berman, P. (1977). Federal Programs Supporting Educational Change, Vol. VII: Factors Affecting Implementation and Continuation.
- Bitterman, A., Goldring, R., Gray, L. (2013). Characteristics of public and private elementary and secondary school principals in the United States: Results from the 2011-12 schools

- and staffing survey. *United States Department of Education*. Retrieved from <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED544178>
- Black, K. R. (1994). Personality screening in employment. *American Business Law Journal*, 32(1), 69-124.
- Black, S. (2001). Moral matters: When teachers feel good about their work research shows, student achievement rises. *American School Board Journal*, 188(1), 40-43.
- Bogg, T., & Roberts, B. W. (2004). Conscientiousness and health-related behaviors: A meta-analysis of the leading behavioral contributors to mortality. *Psychological Bulletin*, 130(6), 887.
- Boyd, D., Dunlop, E., Lankford, H., Loeb, S., Mahler, P., O'Brien, R., & Wyckoff, J. (2012). *Alternative certification in the long run: A decade of evidence on the effects of alternative certification in New York City*. In annual meeting of the American Education Finance and Policy Conference, Boston, MA.
- Boyle, G. J., Matthews, G. E., & Saklofske, D. H. (2008). *The SAGE handbook of personality theory and assessment* (Vol. 2)
- Bozgeyikli, H. (2017). Big Five personality traits as the predictor of teachers' organizational psychological capital. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 8(18), 125-135.
- Briere, D. E., Simonsen, B., Sugai, G., & Myers, D. (2015). Increasing new teachers' specific praise using a within-school consultation intervention. *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions*, 17(1), 50-60.

- Brock, B. L., & Grady, M. L. (1998). Beginning teacher induction programs: The role of the principal. *The Clearing House*, 71(3), 179-183.
- Brock, B. L., & Grady, M. L. (2007). *From first-year to first-rate: Principals guiding beginning teachers*. Thousand Oaks, California: Corwin Press.
- Brogaard, B. (2016). Perceptual appearances of personality. *Philosophical Topics*, 44(2), 83-103.
- Brouwers, A., & Tomic, W. (2000). A longitudinal study of teacher burnout and perceived self-efficacy in classroom management. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 16, 239-253.
- Brown, D. (Ed.). (2002). *Career choice and development*. San Francisco, California: John Wiley & Sons.
- Bryan, N., & Ford, D. Y. (2014). Recruiting and retaining Black male teachers in gifted education. *Gifted Child Today*, 37(3), 156-161.
- Bueno, B. O., & Lapo, F. R. (2003). Professores, desencanto com a profissão e abandono do magistério. *Cadernos de pesquisa*, 118, 65.
- Bullough Jr., R. V. (2015). Differences? Similarities? Male teacher, female teacher: An instrumental case study of teaching in a Head Start classroom. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 47, 13-21.
- Callahan, J. (2016). Encouraging retention of new teachers through mentoring strategies. *Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin*, 83(1), 6-11.
- Calvasina, G. E., & Calvasina, R. V. (2016). Using personality testing as part of the employee selection process: Legal and policy issues for employers. *Journal of Legal, Ethical and Regulatory Issues*, 19(2), 112.

- Charters Jr., W. W. (1970). Some factors affecting teacher survival in school districts. *American Educational Research Journal*, 7(1), 1-27.
- Cheng, H., & Furnham, A. (2003). Personality, self-esteem, and demographic predictions of happiness and depression. *Personality and individual differences*, 34(6), 921-942.
- Chmelynski, C. (2006). Getting more men and blacks into teaching. *The Education Digest*, 71(5), 40.
- Clark, D. J., & Guest, K. (1995). Voila. *Executive Educator*, 17(1), 18-24.
- Claessens, L., Van Tartwijk, J., Pennings, H., Van Der Want, A., Verloop, N., Den Brok, P., & Wubbels, T. (2016). Beginning and experienced secondary school teachers' self-and student schema in positive and problematic teacher–student relationships. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 55, 88-99.
- Cochran-Smith, M. (2001). Learning to teach against the (new) grain. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 52(1), 3-4.
- Cochran-Smith, M. (2004). Stayers, leavers, lovers, and dreamers: Insights about teacher retention. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 55, 387–392.
- Cohen, R. M. (2015). Can affordable housing help retain teachers?
Retrieved from: <http://prospect.org/article/canaffordable-housing-help-retain-teachers>
- Coleman, J. S., & Hoffer, T. (1987). *Public and private high schools: The impact of communities* (Vol. 41). New York: Basic Books.
- Costa, P. T., & McCrae, R. R. (1992). Multiple uses for longitudinal personality data. *European Journal of Personality*, 6(2), 85-102.
- Cross, F. (2016). Teacher shortage areas nationwide listing: 1990-1991 through 2016-2017. *United States Department of Education*.

- Darling-Hammond, L., & Sykes, G. (2003). Wanted, a national teacher supply policy for education: The right way to meet the "highly qualified teacher" challenge. *Education Policy Analysis Archives, 11*, 33.
- Denburg, N. L., Weller, J. A., Yamada, T. H., Shivapour, D. M., Kaup, A. R., LaLoggia, A., Bechara, A. (2009). Poor decision making among older adults is related to elevated levels of neuroticism. *Annals of Behavioral Medicine, 37*(2), 164-172.
- Dicke, T., Elling, J., Schmeck, A., & Leutner, D. (2015). Reducing reality shock: The effects of classroom management skills training on beginning teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 48*, 1-12.
- Djonko-Moore, C. M. (2016). An exploration of teacher attrition and mobility in high poverty racially segregated schools. *Race Ethnicity and Education, 19*(5), 1063-1087.
- Dutta, S., & Khatri, P. (2017). Servant leadership and positive organizational behaviour: The road ahead to reduce employees' turnover intentions. *On the Horizon, 25*(1), 60-82.
- Erdheim, J., Wang, M., & Zickar, M. J. (2006). Linking the Big Five personality constructs to organizational commitment. *Personality and Individual Differences, 41*, 959-970.
- Espeland, K. E. (2006). Overcoming burnout: How to revitalize your career. *Journal of Continuing Education in Nursing, 37*(4), 178-184.
- Forney, D., Wallace-Schutzman, F., & Wiggers, T. (1982). Burnout among career development professionals: Preliminary findings and implications. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 60*(7), 435-439.
- Foutch, H., McHugh, E. R., Bertoch, S. C., & Reardon, R. C. (2014). Creating and using a database on Holland's theory and practical tools. *Journal of Career Assessment, 22*(1), 188-202.

- Gall, M. D., Gall, J. P., & Borg, W. R. (2007). *Educational research: An introduction* (8th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Garon, I. (2013). Why do people view teaching as a 'B-list' job. Retrieved from <https://www.theguardian.com/commentisfree/2013/sep/05/education-us-teacher-shortages>
- Gerris, J. R., Delsing, M. J., & Oud, J. H. (2010). Big-Five personality factors and interpersonal trust in established marriages. *Family Science, 1*(1), 48-62.
- Ghorpade, J., Lackritz, J., & Singh, G. (2007). Burnout and personality: Evidence from academia. *Journal of career assessment, 15*(2), 240-256.
- Goldstein, A. M., & Epstein, S. D. (2008). Personality testing in employment: Useful business tool or civil rights violation? *The Labor Lawyer, 24*(2), 243-252. Retrieved from <http://ezproxy.liberty.edu/login?url=https://search-proquest-com.ezproxy.liberty.edu/docview/191690713?accountid=12085>
- Goncalves, J. A. M. (1992). A carreira das professoras do ensino primário. *Vidas de professores, 2*, 141-197.
- Gursoy, D., Chi, C. G. Q., & Karadag, E. (2013). Generational differences in work values and attitudes among frontline and service contact employees. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 32*, 40-48.
- Greenberg, M. T., Brown, J. L., & Abenavoli, R. M. (2016). Teacher stress and health effects on teachers, students, and schools. *Edna Bennett Pierce Prevention Research Center, Pennsylvania State University*.

- Grice, R. (2006). Personality Profiles of Experienced US Army Rotary-Wing Aviators Across Mission. Unpublished manuscript, Department of Philosophy, Liberty University, Lynchburg, Virginia.
- Guha, R., Hyler, M. E., & Darling-Hammond, L. (2017). The teacher residency: A practical path to recruitment and retention. *American Educator*, 41(1), 31.
- Hassan, H., Vina, T. M. H., & Ithnin, N. S. (2017). Perceived organizational politics and job satisfaction: The role of personality as moderator. *LogForum*, 13.
- Hochberg, E. D., Desimone, L. M., Porter, A. C., Polikoff, M. S., Schwartz, R., & Johnson, L. J. (2015). A hybrid approach benefits beginning teachers. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 96(8), 70-72.
- Hoff, D. L., & Mitchell, S. N. (2008). In search of leaders: Gender factors in school administration. *Advancing Women in Leadership Journal*, 27(2), 1-19.
- Holland, J. L. (1973). *Making vocational choices: A theory of careers*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice-Hall.
- Holland, J. L. (1997). *Making vocational choices: A theory of vocational personalities and work environments* (3rd ed.). Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources.
- Hoyle, E. (2001). Teaching: Prestige, status and esteem. *Educational Management, Administration, and Leadership*, 29(2), 139-152.
- Hoyt, A. L., Rhodes, R. E., Hausenblas, H. A., & Giacobbi Jr., P. R. (2009). Integrating five-factor model facet-level traits with the theory of planned behavior and exercise. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, 10(5), 565-572.
- Hudson, N. W., & Fraley, R. C. (2015). Volitional personality trait change: Can people choose to change their personality traits? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 109(3), 490-507.

- Ingersoll, R. M. (2001). Teacher turnover and teacher shortages: An organizational analysis. *American Educational Research Journal*, 38(3), 499-534.
- Ingersoll, R. (2002). Holes in the teacher supply bucket. *The School Administrator*, 59(3), 499-534.
- Ingersoll, R. (2003). Is there really a teacher shortage? A report co-sponsored by the Center for the Study of Teaching and Policy and the Center for Policy Research in Education. *Seattle: University of Washington, Center for the Study of Teaching and Policy*. Retrieved from https://repository.upenn.edu/cpre_researchreports/37/
- Jensen-Campbell, L. A., & Graziano, W. G. (2001). Agreeableness as a moderator of interpersonal conflict. *Journal of Personality*, 69(2), 323-362.
- Johnson, B., & Christensen, L. (2008). *Educational research: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed approaches*. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage.
- Johnson, S. M., & The Project on The Next Generation of Teachers. (2004). *Finders and keepers: Helping new teachers survive and thrive in our schools*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Johnson, S. P. (2008). The status of male teachers in public education today. *Education Policy Brief*, 6(4), 1-11.
- Kalokerinos, E. K., Kjelsaas, K., Bennetts, S., & von Hippel, C. (2017). Men in pink collars: Stereotype threat and disengagement among male teachers and child protection workers. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 47(5), 553-565.
- Kankaraš, M. (2017). Personality matters: Relevance and assessment of personality characteristics. *OECD Education Working Papers*, 157, 1-127.

- Kaufman, S. B., Quilty, L. C., Grazioplene, R. G., Hirsh, J. B., Gray, J. R., Peterson, J. B., & DeYoung, C. G. (2016). Openness to experience and intellect differentially predict creative achievement in the arts and sciences. *Journal of Personality, 84*(2), 248-258.
- Kee, A. N. (2012). Feelings of preparedness among alternatively certified teachers: What is the role of program features? *Journal of Teacher Education, 63*(1), 23-38.
- Kennedy, B., Curtis, K., & Waters, D. (2014). Is there a relationship between personality and choice of nursing specialty: An integrative literature review. *BMC Nursing, 13*(1), 40.
- Kernberg, O. F. (2016). What is personality? *Journal of Personality Disorders, 30*(2), 145-156.
- Kerry-Henkel, L. A. (2017). *Teacher Burnout, self-efficacy, and the identification and referral of at-risk Students* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). The University of Arizona, Location.
- Kersaint, G. (2005, August). *Teacher attrition: A costly loss to the nation and to the states*. (Issue Brief No. what). Location: *Alliance for Excellent Education*.
- Klassen, R. M., & Tze, V. M. (2014). Teachers' self-efficacy, personality, and teaching effectiveness: A meta-analysis. *Educational Research Review, 12*, 59-76.
- Klassen, R. M., Usher, E. L., & Bong, M. (2010). Teachers' collective efficacy, job satisfaction, and job stress in cross-cultural context. *The Journal of Experimental Education, 78*(4), 464-486.
- Kokkinos, C. M. (2007). Job stressors, personality, and burnout in primary school teachers. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 77*(1), 229-243.
- Komaraju, M., Karau, S. J., Schmeck, R. R., & Avdic, A. (2011). The Big Five personality traits, learning styles, and academic achievement. *Personality and Individual Differences, 51*(4), 472-477.

- Kyriacou, C. (2001). Teacher stress: Directions for future research. *Educational Review*, 53, 27-35.
- Lacks, P. (2016). *The relationships between school climate, teacher self-efficacy, and teacher beliefs*. Unpublished manuscript, Department of Education, Liberty University, Lynchburg, Virginia.
- Laher, S. (2013). Understanding the five-factor model and five-factor theory through a South African cultural lens. *South African Journal of Psychology*, 43(2), 208-221.
- Leaman, L. (2006). *The Naked Teacher: How to survive your first five years in teaching*. London, New York: Continuum International Publishing Group.
- Lee, Y. H. (2019). Emotional labor, teacher burnout, and turnover intention in high-school physical education teaching. *European Physical Education Review*, 25(1), 236-253.
- Levine, A. (2006). Educating school teachers. *Education Schools Project*. Retrieved from <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED504135>
- Lindqvist, P., & Nordänger, U. K. (2016). Already elsewhere—A study of (skilled) teachers' choice to leave teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 54, 88-97.
- Little, J. W. (1992). Opening the black box of professional community. *The Changing Contexts of Teaching*, 157-178.
- Mackenzie, N. (2007). Teacher morale: More complex than we think? *The Australian Educational Researcher*, 34(1), 89-104.
- Marsh, H. W., Lüdtke, O., Muthén, B., Asparouhov, T., Morin, A. J. S., & Trautwein, U. (2010). A new look at the big five factor structure through exploratory structural equation modeling. *Psychological Assessment*, 22(3), 471–491.

- Maslach, C., & Jackson, S. E. (1981). The measurement of experienced burnout. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 2, 99-113.
- Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W. B., & Leiter, M. P. (2001). Job burnout. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52, 397-422.
- Mason, S., & Matas, C. P. (2015). Teacher attrition and retention research in Australia: Towards a new theoretical framework. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education (Online)*, 40(11), 45.
- McCabe, K. O., & Fleeson, W. (2016). Are traits useful? Explaining trait manifestations as tools in the pursuit of goals. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 110(2), 287.
- McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T. (2008). Empirical and theoretical status of the five-factor model of personality traits. In G. J. Boyle, G. Matthews, & D. H. Saklofske (Eds.), *The SAGE Handbook of Personality Theory and Assessment* (pp. 273-294). London, England: SAGE.
- McCrae, R. R., & John, O. P. (1992). An introduction to the five-factor model and its applications. *Journal of personality*, 60(2), 175-215.
- McGrath, K., & Sinclair, M. (2013). More male primary-school teachers? Social benefits for boys and girls. *Gender and Education*, 25(5), 531-547.
- McKinsey, C., & McKinsey, M. M. (2007). *How the world's best performing school systems come out on top*. London, England: McKinsey.
- Menjoge, S. S. (2003). Testing the limits of anti-discrimination law: How employers' use of pre-employment psychological and personality test can circumvent title vii and the ADA. *North Carolina Law Review*, 82(1), 326-365.

- Meyerowitz, S. A. (2016). Personality testing. *Employee Relations Law Journal*, 42(3).
Retrieved from http://link.galegroup.com.ezproxy.liberty.edu/apps/doc/A471000387/LT?u=vic_liberty&sid=LT&xid=1558c434
- Myers, I., & Myers, P. (2010). *Gifts differing: Understanding personality type*. Mountain View, California: Davies-Black Publishing.
- Mills, M., Martino, W., & Lingard, B. (2004). Attracting, recruiting and retaining male teachers: Policy issues in the male teacher debate. *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, 25(3), 355-369.
- Milloy, M. (2003). The guy teacher. *NEA Today*, 22(2), 22-31.
- Moore, W. (2002). *Teachers and stress: Pressures of life at the chalk face*. Retrieved from www.chanel4.com
- Moss-Racusin, C. A., & Johnson, E. R. (2016). Backlash against male elementary educators. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 46(7), 379-393.
- Nieto, S. (2003). *What keeps teachers going?* New York: Teachers College Press.
- O'Brien, T. B., DeLongis, A., Pomaki, G., Puterman, E., & Zwicker, A. (2009). Couples coping with stress: The role of empathic responding. *European Psychologist*, 14(1), 18-28.
- Oliver, P. (2014). *Recruitment, Selection & Retention of Law Enforcement Officers*. Flushing, NY: Looseleaf Law Publications.
- Ozer, D. J., & Benet-Martinez, V. (2006). Personality and the prediction of consequential outcomes. *Annu. Rev. Psychol.*, 57, 401-421.
- Paredes, V. (2014). A teacher like me or a student like me? Role model versus teacher bias effect. *Economics of Education Review*, 39, 38-49.

- Piotrowski, C., & Armstrong, T. (2006). Current recruitment and selection practices: A national survey of Fortune 1000 firms. *North American Journal of Psychology, 8*(3), 489-496.
- Powell, D. M., & Bourdage, J. S. (2016). The detection of personality traits in employment interviews: Can “good judges” be trained? *Personality and Individual Differences, 94*, 194-199.
- Redding, C., & Smith, T. M. (2016). Easy in, easy out: Are alternatively certified teachers turning over at increased rates? *American Educational Research Journal, 53*(4), 1086-1125.
- Richards, J. (2012). Teacher stress and coping strategies: A national snapshot. *The Educational Forum, 76*(3), 299-316.
- Richardson, V. (1998). How teachers change: What will lead to change that most benefits student learning? *Focus on Basics, 2*(4), 7-11.
- Ronfeldt, M., Loeb, S., & Wyckoff, J. (2013). How teacher turnover harms student achievement. *American Educational Research Journal, 50*(1), 4-36.
- Rosborg, J., MsGee, M., & Burgett, J. (2007). *The perfect school*. Novato, CA: Education Communication Unlimited.
- Rothe, J. P. (Ed.). (2017). *The scientific analysis of personality*. New York, NY: Routledge/Taylor & Francis Group.
- Rueda, M. R., & Rothbart, M. K. (2009). The influence of temperament on the development of coping: The role of maturation and experience. *New Directions for Child and Adolescent Development, 2009*(124), 19-31.

- Rushton, S., Morgan, J., & Richard, M. (2007). Teacher's Myers-Briggs personality profiles: Identifying effective teacher personality traits. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 23*(4), 432-441.
- Salmela-Aro, K., Tolvanen, A., & Nurmi, J. E. (2009). Achievement strategies during university studies predict early career burnout and engagement. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 75*(2), 162-172.
- Sanders, J. (2002). Something is missing from teacher education: Attention to two genders. *Phi Delta Kappan, 84*(3), 241-244.
- Sarwar, A., Hameed, S., & Aftab, H. (2013). Study to explore the impact of personality traits on employee turnover in public and private sector. *Middle-East Journal of Scientific Research, 16*(9), 1249-1254.
- Scelfo, J. (2007). Come back, Mr. Chips. *Newsweek, 150*, 12-44.
- Schoenfeld, A. H. (2002). Making mathematics work for all children: Issues of standards, testing, and equity. *Educational Researcher, 31*(1), 13-25.
- Sears, S. J., Kennedy, J. J., & Kaye, G. L. (1997). Myers-Briggs personality profiles of prospective educators. *The Journal of Educational Research, 90*(4), 195-202.
- Simon, N. S., & Johnson, S. M. (2015). Teacher turnover in high-poverty schools: What we know and can do. *Teachers College Record, 117*(3), 1-36.
- Skaalvik, E. M., & Skaalvik, S. (2010). Teacher self-efficacy and teacher burnout: A study of relations. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 26*, 1059-1069.
- Skaalvik, E. M., & Skaalvik, S. (2011). Teacher job satisfaction and motivation to leave the teaching profession: Relations with school context, feeling of belonging, and emotional exhaustion. *Teaching and teacher education, 27*(6), 1029-1038.

- Sleppin, D. S. (2009). *New teacher isolation and its relationship to teacher attrition* (Doctoral dissertation or master's theses). Retrieved from ProQuest Central; ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (2882).
- Smith, D. C., Nystrand, R., Ruch, C., Gideonse, H., & Carlson, K. (1985). Alternative certification: A position statement of AACTE. *Journal of Teacher Education, 36*(3), 24.
- Smith, T. M., & Ingersoll, R. M. (2004). What are the effects of induction and mentoring on beginning teacher turnover? *American Educational Research Journal, 41*(3), 681-714.
- Soto, C. J., & John, O. P. (2015). Conceptualization, development, and initial validation of the Big Five Inventory-2. In *biennial meeting of the Association for Research in Personality, St. Louis, MO*. Available from <http://www.colby.edu/psych/personality-lab>.
- Soto, C. J., & John, O. P. (2017). The next Big Five Inventory (BFI-2): Developing and assessing a hierarchical model with 15 facets to enhance bandwidth, fidelity, and predictive power. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 113*(1), 117.
- Soto, C. J., John, O. P., Gosling, S. D., & Potter, J. (2011). Age differences in personality traits from 10 to 65: Big Five domains and facets in a large cross-sectional sample. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 100*(2), 330-348.
- Specht, J., Egloff, B., & Schmukle, S. C. (2011). Stability and change of personality across the life course: The impact of age and major life events on mean-level and rank-order stability of the Big Five. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 101*(4), 862-882.
- Springer, M. G., Swain, W. A., & Rodriguez, L. A. (2016). Effective teacher retention bonuses: Evidence from Tennessee. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 38*(2), 199-221.
- Stabile, S. J. (2001). The use of personality tests as a hiring tool: Is the benefit worth the cost. *U. Pa. J. Lab. & Emp. L., 4*, 279.

- Stabile, S. J. (2002). The use of personality tests as hiring tool: Is the benefit worth the cost. *University of Pennsylvania Journal of Labor and Employment Law*, 4(2), 279-314.
- Stauffer, S., & Mason, E. (2013). Addressing elementary school teachers' professional stressors: Practical suggestions for schools and administrators. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 20(10), 1-29.
- Struyven, K., & Vanthournout, G. (2014). Teachers' exit decisions: An investigation into the reasons why newly qualified teachers fail to enter the teaching profession or why those who do enter do not continue teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 43, 37-45.
- Sulea, C., Van Beek, I., Sarbescu, P., Virga, D., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2015). Engagement, boredom, and burnout among students: Basic need satisfaction matters more than personality traits. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 42, 132-138.
- Tabb, E. (1994). Characteristics of stayers, movers, & leavers: Results from the teacher follow-up survey from 1991-1992. *National Center for Educational Statistics. Washington, DC: US Department of Education.*
- Tella, A. (2017). Teacher variables as predictors of academic achievement of primary school pupils' mathematics. *International Electronic Journal of Elementary Education*, 1(1), 16-33.
- Thibodeaux, A. K., Labat, M. B., Lee, D. E., & Labat, C. A. (2015). The effects of leadership and high-stakes testing on teacher retention. *Academy of Educational Leadership Journal*, 19(1), 227.
- Thompson, R. J., Kuppens, P., Mata, J., Jaeggi, S. M., Buschkuhl, M., Jonides, J., & Gotlib, I. H. (2015). Emotional clarity as a function of neuroticism and major depressive disorder. *Emotion*, 15(5), 615.

- Toomey, K. D., Levinson, E. M., & Palmer, E. J. (2009). A test of Holland's theory of vocational personalities and work environments. *Journal of Employment Counseling, 46*(2), 82-93. Retrieved from <http://ezproxy.liberty.edu/login?url=https://search-proquest.com.ezproxy.liberty.edu/docview/237015109?accountid=12085>
- Törnroos, M., Jokela, M., & Hakulinen, C. (2019). The relationship between personality and job satisfaction across occupations. *Personality and Individual Differences, 145*, 82-88.
- Torres, A. C. (2016). Is this work sustainable? Teacher turnover and perceptions of workload in charter management organizations. *Urban Education, 51*(8), 891-914.
- Tross, S. A., Harper, J. P., Osher, L. W., & Kneidinger, L. M. (2000). Not just the usual cast of characteristics: Using personality to predict college performance and retention. *Journal of College Student Development, 41*(3), 323.
- Unruh, L. E., & McCord, D. M. (2010). Personality traits and beliefs about diversity in pre-service teachers. *Individual Differences Research, 8*(1), 1-7.
- Vashaw, S. J. (2017). *Exploring the narratives of experienced male elementary school teachers who voluntarily decided to leave the profession of teaching*. Unpublished manuscript, Education, Pennsylvania State University, United States of America.
- Veenman, S. (1984). Perceived problems of beginning teachers. *Review of Educational Research, 54*(2), 143-178.
- Wentworth, M. (1990). Developing staff morale. *The Practitioner, 16*(4), 12-24.
- Williams, C. L. (2013). The glass escalator, revisited: Gender inequality in neoliberal times, SWS feminist lecturer. *Gender & Society, 27*(5), 609-629.

- Wong, H. K. (2005). New teacher induction. *Teacher Mentoring and Induction: The State of the Art and Beyond*, 41-58.
- Zaharie, M., Osoian, C., & Beleiu, I. (2014). Personality traits and vocational interests-An empirical investigation. *Managerial Challenges of the Contemporary Society Proceedings*, 7(1), 187.
- Zhao, H., & Seibert, S. E. (2006). The Big Five personality dimensions and entrepreneurial status: A meta-analytical review. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(2), 259.
- Zhang, G., & Zeller, N. (2016). A longitudinal investigation of the relationship between teacher preparation and teacher retention. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 43(2), 7.

Appendix

BFI-2 removed to comply with copyright